The Nation.

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The Week.

Senator Platt of Connecticut has removed any remaining doubt as to the securing of reciprocity with Cuba through the early action of Congress by this brief statement of his position:

"I am a protectionist, and have been so much so that I have been called a partisan. I am as strong a protectionist now as ever, but I believe that proper and reasonable tariff concessions can be made on Cuban products in return for Cuban tariff concessions on American products, which would greatly benefit the trade of both countries and not appreciably injure any American industry. I think the cause of protection is being wounded now in the house of its professed friends, and that the free-trader cannot injure the cause of protection as much as protectionists who insist upon unreasonable and unnecessary customs dues."

The significance of this declaration does not consist alone in the fact that Mr. Platt has always been a strong protectionist, and that he comes from a State whose tobacco-growers are making an earnest protest against any tariff concessions to Cuba. Mr. Platt is not only a Republican of the high-tariff school, representing what has been a high-tariff commonwealth, but he is also one of the half-dozen most influential leaders in the Senate, and in this capacity his support of Cuban reciprocity is of the first importance. Moreover, it may safely be taken for granted that Mr. Platt does not speak for himself alone as a leader in his body, but that Allison, Aldrich, Spooner, and the other men who usually control the action of the upper branch, have reached the same conclusion as to this burning issue.

The significance of Mr. Platt's statement, however, is not confined to the question of Cuban reciprocity. What he says on the broader issue of tariff revision is equally important as a sign of the times. This veteran New England protectionist sees and admits that the pending question is not simply one of doing justice to Cuba, or of promoting better trade relations between the two countries. He perceives and confesses that the whole cause of a protective tariff is involved, and that the high-tariff people who oppose concessions to Cuba are endangering the very duties upon which they depend for protection against imports from the rest of the world. The shrewd Connecticut Senator realizes, more clearly than some of the other protectionist Senators and Representatives from the East, that there is a sentiment in favor of tariff reform among the Republicans of the Middle West which cannot safely be defied. He understands that Congressman Babcock's insistence upon some reductions in the present rates is no personal eccentricity of the Wisconsin member, and that the support given to his scheme in the Ways and Means Committee by Congressman Tawney of Minnesota was not a bid for notoriety; but that these Representatives really represent their constituents in this matter, and that the people are in no mood to be trifled with.

While the Cuban medicine is working in the Committee of Ways and Means, another and larger dose of tariff reform is working in the House. The Babcock proposal to repeal or reduce the duties on steel and iron has taken a fresh start since it was offered in the Committee and failed by only one vote. Mr. Babcock now says that, if he could bring it to a vote in the House, it would pass by three to one. If this be true, or if it be true that it would pass by any majority, large or small, then the difficulty of getting it before the House is only a question of time. Chairman Payne is said to have warned Mr. Babcock that, if he did not stop his agitation, the Committee would "go up into Wisconsin and take the duty off lumber." Mr. Babcock is reported to have made a very hot reply in the committee-room. The answer he makes in an interview with the New York *Times* correspondent is as follows:

"I don't care whether he takes the duty off lumber or not. That is a threat that has no terrors for me. That won't hurt Wisconsin. The people who are going to make trouble, if the duty is taken off lumber, live in Pennsylvania and Maine, especially the hemlock people in Pennsylvania. If Mr. Payne makes that threat good, he will be hurting the East, not the West."

It will be a very cold day when Mr. Payne and the people he represents adopt the policy of retaliation on Mr. Babcock and his friends. The cause of tariff reform would be pushed forward many miles by such a falling out, and the gain that it would make would be permanent, and not fitful, as it was in 1890-94. It has often been said that the tariff ought to be reformed by its friends. There are now some signs that this saying may come true.

"Let us consider everybody damned," said the bishop to profane Lord Melbourne, "and pass on to the business in hand." So one might say to the Senate, after the promiscuous hanging which—by tongue only—was indulged in by that body on Thursday. "Let us consider everybody a traitor for whom hanging is too good, and get on to the real pith of the Philippine question." That continues to cry out for attention, no matter how skilfully Senators Hoar, Tillman, and Foraker may leave each other dangling from a metaphorical or logical gallows. It is highly indicative, however, of the changed temper of press and public that such outcries in the Senate, such frank admissions of technical treason by Senators, and such fustian as that of Foraker's about our troops never returning except "victorious," arouse no excitement. The people are, in general, languid about the whole affair. They have unmistakably grown weary of the old ranting on the subject, and have reached the "psychological moment" when a fresh and vigorous leadership in a new direction will appeal to them powerfully. This is the opportunity which President Schurman and Senator Hoar and the other advocates of justice to Filipino aspirations are seizing, and of which they are making such excellent use that the tardy *ipse dixits* of Gov. Taft are quite thrown in the shade.

Secretary Shaw's letter to Congressman Sulzer on the subject of deposits of public money in banks is an encouraging step forward in the pathway of rational finance. In reply to an inquiry from Mr. Sulzer, he says that a computation made in the Treasury Department by direction of Secretary Gage shows that, if the Government had deposited its surplus funds over and above a working balance of $30,000,000 in national-bank depositories without bond security, but requiring the payment of interest at 2 per cent. on quarterly balances, there would have been no loss; but that, on the other hand, there would have been a gain to the Government of $32,000,000, and that the banks of the country would have been enabled to extend $200,000,000 of additional accommodation to borrowers. This is on the presumption that the Government had a prior lien on all the assets of the banks. No change is required in the existing law in this particular. The Government's prior lien on the assets of failed banks has always been a feature of the national bank system. Now Secretary Shaw endorses the principle of depositing surplus money in the banks at interest without bond security. His predecessor, Mr. Gage, had never gone so far in his public deliverances, but it was known that privately he favored this policy, and it is quite clear that he paved the way for the step which Secretary Shaw has taken.

It is safe to say that public opinion will sustain the proposed measure, and that the only disputes likely to arise will be in reference to details. A bill introduced by Congressman Pugsley of New York provides that the Secretary may in

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his discretion deposit with national banks having a capital of not less than $100,000, and a surplus of a like amount, such portion of the surplus funds in excess of $30,000,000 as may from time to time be in the Treasury. These deposits may be made without requiring United States bonds as security, but shall not exceed to any one bank 50 per cent. of the combined capital and surplus of the bank in which the funds are so deposited. It is contended by some authorities of high rank that no money should be deposited on these conditions in banks having a less capital than $500,000 and a surplus of like amount. This contention rests upon the belief that the small banks are more liable to become insolvent than the large ones. If this were a fact, it would not be a conclusive argument in favor of drawing the line at the figures named. It would still be necessary to show that the Government, with its prior lien on assets, would incur loss by such failure—which is a quite different proposition. It is not true, however, that small banks are proportionately more liable to failure than large ones. The statistics of the national bank system show that the proportion is about the same above and below the $100,000 line.

The report of the Industrial Commission has not yet reached the public, but a synopsis of its recommendations has been put on the wires from Washington. Among other things which the Commission proposes is an annual franchise tax to be imposed by the Federal Government upon all State corporations engaged in interstate commerce, calculated upon the gross earnings of each corporation from its interstate business. The minimum rate of such tax is to be low, but the rate is to increase gradually with the earnings. Accompanying this is a recommendation for a bureau of publicity in the Treasury Department, the duties of which shall be to register all State corporations engaged in interstate or foreign commerce; to secure from such corporations all reports needed to enable the Government to levy a franchise tax with certainty and justice, and to collect the same; to inspect the business and accounts of such corporations, and to ascertain whether the corporations are following the law; to enforce penalties against delinquents, and to collate and publish information for Congress. These recommendations, if carried into effect, will put the Trusts and combines under the same kind of inspection as the railroads are now subjected to by the Interstate Commerce Commission. An additional suggestion is made that another commission be appointed to inquire into the practice of some protected manufacturers of selling their goods at lower prices abroad than at home, and to report what concessions and duties may be made without endangering wages and employment at home. Considering the amount of testimony taken on this very subject by the Industrial Commission itself, and the amount of time consumed by it, great surprise will be felt that it has not made up its own mind, instead of referring the matter to another body which, if appointed and clothed with the necessary authority, may take two or three years more to reach a conclusion. The public mind is ripe for considering this subject now.

In default of any recommendation concerning tariff-protected Trusts, Mr. Phillips of Pennsylvania, an ex-member of Congress, and a member of the Commission, makes a minority report that has some spirit in it. He scouts the idea of turning this question over to another commission, and recommends that the tariff on metals be at once removed or greatly reduced, as provided in the Babcock bill, and that the same principle be applied to ores, wood pulp, spruce logs, and other raw materials which are in limited supply, and therefore subject to monopoly. The duty on iron ore, for example, is 40 cents per ton, and more than 80 per cent. of the ore beds of Lake Superior are already monopolized by the Steel Trust. It is impossible to suppose that Congress needs any more information than it already possesses in order to legislate on this subject. The recommendation to adjourn the question till another commission can be organized and can take testimony and make a report, can have no other effect than to prolong the present conditions. Mr. Phillips gives us some new and important information respecting railroad discrimination in favor of large shippers, showing how the small producer is crushed, not by the superior facilities of the large one, but by unjust and unlawful rebates on transportation given to the latter. These rebates are still given to the Standard Oil Company, as of old. Specific instances are cited which show that individual refiners are entirely excluded from large sections of the country by preferences given to the Standard Company by railroads, and that the officers of the roads, when questioned on the subject, lied about it in the most brazen way.

That was an extremely illuminating picture of the inside condition of the noble Republican party of Brooklyn which was drawn by the witnesses in the Guden hearing before the Governor at Albany on January 28. A Sheriff who bargained away all his receipts above $12,000 and all the offices at his disposal, and then repented of his bargain and tried to sneak out of it; a boss who demanded and secured the right to name the candidate for Sheriff after only one or two feeble protests, and then dictated terms to his creatures; an under-sheriff who tried to bribe a confidential secretary to betray her employer—these were some of the most interesting figures of the day. One witness testified that he had demanded at least three offices for himself, although only a member of the County Committee, and had indignantly spurned the offer of the chief clerkship. The virtuous under-sheriff, it seems, tried to plunder Mr. Dady's safe, and told his superior that he would like to wring the shrieval neck. The worthy and right honorable Sheriff would seem to have played fast and loose with everybody. If any one ever had any doubts about the standing and character of the Brooklyn Republican organization under the leadership of Woodruff, Worth, and Dady, he must be relieved of them now. Its own members have stamped it as being on a par with Tammany Hall in the character of its leaders, in its aims, and in its conduct in office.

An admirable feature of our revised charter is the provision which allows the head of any administrative department to occupy a seat in the Board of Aldermen, and authorizes him to participate in its discussions; and which also requires him to answer all questions put to him by any member relating to the affairs of his department, provided he has received forty-eight hours' notice of the questions to be put. The new system received its first illustration on January 28, when the Street-Cleaning Commissioner appeared at the regular meeting, and explained to the Aldermen the condition of that department and the urgency of its needs. The whole situation was thus at once made plain in a way which would have been impossible if the Commissioner had not been able to plead his own cause. So far as we can recall, this is the first time that the principle of giving department heads the right to speak in a legislative body has been applied in this country, and the workings of the new system will be watched with great interest.

First it was the Coroner's jury which found the New York Central guilty in the matter of the tunnel disaster. Now the State Board of Railroad Commissioners, after careful investigation, declares the Company to have been guilty of gross negligence. The next step will be the action of the grand jury, which may be expected to go a step further and fix the responsibility upon some of the officials. Should these again escape with mere censure, the offence of criminal negligence should be removed from the State's statute-book. Although some experts do not think the tunnel signals up-to-date, the Commissioners pronounce them of the best. There will be no dissent from the various common-

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sense recommendations of the Commission, that the blocks should be increased in size, the signals raised to the level of the engine-cab windows, the use of anthracite coal enforced, and the station-yard immediately improved and enlarged. The Commission recognizes the impossibility of making the tunnel an open cut, which would best solve the trouble, but sees no difficulty in operating the tunnel with electricity, and recommends that the railroad be authorized by the Legislature to change its motive power. In every respect the report is judicial in tone, well within the facts, and a credit to the Commission.

The recent request of the Fine Arts Federation to the Mayor for the appointment of a commission to regulate the laying out of the city under a comprehensive plan, needs only to be understood to be favorably received. At present the borough system makes such a plan difficult, but the centralization of this power, through an amendment to the charter, should be easily obtained. The Fine Arts Federation appeals for a better and more intelligent planning of the newer parts of the city. The older part, says Mr. F. S. Lamb, the well-known architect, in an interview, can never be thoroughly done over, but the city can and should do something in providing new squares, and in supervising carefully the designs for the many bridges which must eventually span the Hudson and the East River. Private enterprise, too, can do much to relieve the situation. Property-owners far-sighted enough to combine to make a new Gramercy Park would probably realize upon their investment. The long blocks might be broken by north and south streets, like Astor Court. The suggestion that private initiative may in part remedy the early mistakes of the city government, and do so at a profit, is both novel and interesting.

Professionalism in the larger Eastern colleges is at an end with the action of Columbia in replacing a paid football coach with the captain of last year's team. This change confirms a movement of several years' growth. The more thoughtful graduates and the advisory athletic committees have long contended that college teams should be coached only by amateurs, and preferably by graduates of the college. It is no reflection upon the whole class of college players who have taken up paid coaching to say that these professionals have often made a mystery of their trade where mystery was none; have countenanced questionable methods of making up a team and of play, being naturally more desirous of proving their own competence by a victory than of maintaining the traditions of gentlemanly sport. Some or all of these evils must necessarily follow professional coaching. One need not argue that nobody is so likely as an alumnus and an old player to cherish scrupulously the honorable traditions of a college. It is this sense of representing the college in sport, and of being bound by all the obligations of gentlemen and sportsmen, that is more than winning championships. Columbia is to be congratulated on ranging herself with this sentiment, and it is to be hoped that the smaller colleges, where professional coaching is still common, will generally follow this lead.

Declined with thanks, was precisely the answer which Lord Lansdowne should have given to the Dutch peace proposals, and he made this response with every expression of good will to the Dutch Government and of humane intentions, both to the Boers in the field and to their delegates in Holland. The incident could have had no other ending. Premier Kuyper had absolutely no authority to speak, either for the Boer guerrillas or even for the representatives of the Boer republics in Europe. The British Foreign Office could not possibly have dealt with him on those terms. Lord Lansdowne was right, too, in maintaining that no binding negotiations are possible now except in South Africa. Botha and De Wet are to be reckoned with, and the rest count for next to nothing. Lord Lansdowne, however, expressed his willingness to hear the Boer delegates, and generally his note might have pleased Lord Rosebery for a certain "passive" peaceableness of tone. Technically, the Dutch are left in the awkward situation of an intermediary who is discovered to have no principal; but practically one must feel that matters look somewhat better for peace in the near future. All will concur in the hope of certain English journals, that subsequent peace negotiations may be conducted through the Foreign Office rather than through the Colonial Secretary.

Kitchener's block-house system had its crucial test last week, and partially failed. After manœuvring for many months, he had De Wet's command fairly caught between three lines of block-houses and an armed cordon holding a line forty miles long. It was precisely the advantage, in view of which the block-house system was established, and theoretically Kitchener, who directed the operations in person, had only to advance the mobile side of his square until he had the Boer leader caught between his fire and that of the block-house line. It was a well-matured plan, which appears to have been executed faultlessly except in the main article of bagging De Wet. The fault here was apparently not Kitchener's; the meshes of his net were too large, and the Boers slipped through with considerable loss, to be sure, into the new and larger block-house quadrangle between Winburg and Lindley. The failure of the campaign shows that, while the block-house lines are an embarrassment to the enemy, they are not strong or closely built enough to prevent the passage of small bodies of Boers. Nor is there any likelihood that England will give Kitchener men enough to make these lines impassable. Short of that, it will take many months or some piece of extraordinary good luck to catch any of the Boer leaders, and the dispersion of the enemy into smaller commandoes will probably only exacerbate the guerrilla phase of the war.

It is impossible from the dispatches to measure the extent of the English army scandals. One would suppose that the devoted British officer had been effectively "brayed in a mortar." The remounts revelations show that that drastic process is, as King Solomon observed, in certain cases unavailing. The food-contracts scandal is of far uglier aspect. In a word, the contracts for provisioning the army were sublet many times, and always at a profit, until they reached the sphere of commercial influence of Mr. Cecil Rhodes. Even the ultra-Tory *Saturday Review* admits that the Government has been swindled atrociously, and the British taxpayer, who is fairly used to attacks upon his pride, will resent with double bitterness this attack upon his pocket. It is edifying to imagine the tirade upon the corruption of vulgar republics which would have enlivened the *Saturday Review* if the food-contract scandals had been not British, but American.

That colonial expansion and trade expansion are by no means convertible terms was strikingly shown on Friday in the Reichstag by Herr Richter, the Radical leader. He proved from official statistics that there are but 3,762 Germans, including officials and missionaries, in the colonies; that each colonist costs the Empire 6,000 marks a year; that if colonial trade has more than doubled (from 11,000,000 to 25,000,000 marks) in the past five years, during the same period colonial expenditure has nearly trebled (from 7,000,000 to 19.000,000 marks); finally, that the apparent increase in exports to the colonies was chiefly due to Government and military supplies—quite as the case was found to be in the Philippines—and so was actually a charge upon the home country. When it is remembered that in these same five years Germany has confirmed her standing as one of the greatest exporting Powers, the "trade follows the flag" axiom, which had already begun to bear a damaged look, will need no further refutation.

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CUTTING THE PHILIPPINE KNOT.

We have now entered on the fourth year since, by ratifying the treaty with Spain, the United States acquired a bloody war in the Philippines, and apparently embarked on a permanent career of conquest and empire. But at no time within the three years have the signs been so clear as to-day that the country is about to pause in that mad course, to listen again to the older voices which have given us our national watchwords and marching orders, and to turn back, all in good time, to the path from which, in an evil day, it unwittingly wandered. That promise is now bright in the sky for those who have watched steadfastly for its rising, without bating jot of heart or hope. They may now be more confident than ever that the nation of their love and pride will not be compelled, by stupid persistence in a mistaken policy in the Philippines, to

> —"drain the bitter dregs of woe
> Which ever from the oppressed to the oppressors flow."

"The Americans," said an English newspaper recently, in disgust at what it thought the unmanly whining of certain Englishmen about the war in South Africa—"the Americans have been fighting a guerrilla war in the Philippines for three years, but they are not saying anything about it." Oh, but they are! They are, in fact, saying more about it just now than for a long time past. That is the most hopeful element in the present situation. Free discussion has reasserted itself; and all that liberty and justice ever asked is an open debate before open minds. The former terrorism which would impose silence on freemen in America, lest their speech should make freedom seem to men in the Philippines a thing better worth struggling and dying for—that folly is overpast. Representatives speak their minds without rebuke. Senator Money snubs Senator Beveridge to the delight of the galleries. The Opposition Senators have formulated a deliberate policy looking to ultimate withdrawal from the Philippines—and no one wants them hung for treason. We have recovered the right of free speech on that subject, and it is being freely exercised. That is one of our enormous gains, after three years of a war about which, it was said, no patriotic American would lisp.

Another great gain is the final discrediting of the leaders who induced Congress to take the mad Philippine plunge. Their prophecies are so ludicrously falsified that it would be cruel even to recall them. Their expectations have fallen to the ground. Their golden phrases have turned to ashes in their mouths. "Gems and glories of the tropic seas," was President McKinley's grandiloquent description of the islands. From that to President Roosevelt's blunt characterization of them as "a great burden," is a long distance. It is the distance between the cocksure elation of 1899 and the universal disappointment of 1902. Not even Beveridge, not even—to go to a lower depth of silliness—not even Secretary Wilson, would dare to repeat to-day their first glowing predictions of the wealth which was to flow to us from the Philippines. No one now denies that we have already flung away millions there which will never yield us a return. The only question to-day is, not how to get our money back, but how to get our honor back.

We cannot do it, clearly, by further accepting the leadership of the men who have to acknowledge that their policy has been one long series of calamitous mistakes and forecasts brought to naught. "Yes, it is true," say in effect Lodge and Beveridge and Foraker and the others, "the thing has not worked as we thought it would. The ratification of the treaty, the sending of more troops, the dispatch of the first Philippine Commission, the recall of Gen. Otis, the supersession of Gen. MacArthur, the giving the chief command to Gen. Chaffee, the appointment of Gov. Taft, the capture of Aguinaldo—none of these things, we admit, has resulted as we confidently hoped and positively predicted. But"—and this is the amazing, the illogical inference they draw—"our policy is the right one, and if you only keep on trusting us, after all our blunders, we shall surely, take our word for it, bring you out right in the end." This is new and strange doctrine. The American way has been to change a policy which has proved itself a failure, not to stick to it doggedly and count upon "floundering through somehow." Our people are not in the habit of letting themselves be twice led into the ditch by blind leaders of the blind; and we do not think they mean to begin it now.

There is an old English saying, "They have tied a knot with their tongue which they cannot unloose with their teeth." It aptly describes the plight of the framers of our Philippine policy. The knot has got to be cut, and there is just one way to do it. An official proclamation by the President of the United States, authorized by Congress, assuring the Filipinos that we intend to acknowledge their independence, and leave them to work out their own destinies, would at once insure peace with honor throughout the archipelago. About this we discern a strange hesitancy in many minds. Gov. Taft, for example, speaks of independence as a thing to be contemplated possibly, but not to be mentioned now. Others whisper independence, but say it must not be spoken in audible tones. But why not? Apparently because if we openly say "independence," it will make the Filipinos, whom we wish to see independent, desire to be independent! We cannot understand this. If our goal is independence, why not say so, and boldly walk towards it? It is said that we must first stamp out the insurrection and establish a stable native government. But how if a solemn official promise were the surest way to cause all arms to be grounded and the experiment of self-government most speedily undertaken? There we have the new policy which may be hopefully tried in place of the decrepit and discredited old one. In the one phrase, ultimate independence and ultimate withdrawal, we have the true sword wherewith to cut the Philippine knot. Where one man thought so and said so a year ago, a hundred are saying so to-day. It is only a question of time when the President of the United States will join the President of Cornell University in announcing his conversion to this view, and all the people will say, "Amen!"

THE PHILIPPINE INQUIRY.

Gov. Taft's testimony before the Senate Committee on the Philippines is alone enough to justify Senator Hoar's persistence in demanding a special inquiry into the conduct of the war in the Philippines. He is only the civilian Governor, obviously not in direct touch with the military situation in all parts of the archipelago, yet he has to admit that some of the ugliest stories about barbarities practised by American troops are true. There have been, he stated, cases of "unnecessary killing" (polite official phrase for murder), some cases of whipping and of the use of the "water cure" (that is, torture). Of course, he added, such things had been done against orders. They always are. The Spanish generals never put these things into orders—that was neither necessary nor convenient. And if the horrified army officers who have privately told Senator Hoar and others of the cruelties and atrocities committed in the Philippines in the American name—if they could go before the Senate Committee and state what they know, we do not doubt that we should get tales more grewsome in their particulars than anything known to Gov. Taft.

By his evidence alone, however, is now established what has been indignantly branded as a baseless calumny. An interesting correspondence between Senator Lodge and a Boston clergyman, the Rev. Charles F. Dole, was made public the other day. His clerical constituent wanted to know why the Massachusetts Senator opposed an inquiry into the Philippine matter, if for no other purpose than to set at rest the minds of those who feared that "cruel things are being done in those islands under the shadow of our flag." In reply, Mr. Lodge protested that he was not antagonizing an investigation, but declared that he was "slow to be-

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lieve the rumors and tales" which, he said, he was "told" were circulated about men wearing the uniform of the United States. "I certainly shall not believe such charges without proof," he said. Well, we suppose he must consider the admissions of the highest civil officer in the Philippines to be proof. This being so, can he wonder that the Rev. Mr. Dole should say that "the conscience of our people is uneasy" about matters in the Philippines?

What will not let our conscience sleep is not merely the fact that we are at war, nor that the war is a lustreless and ignoble one; but that we are caught doing the very things which led us to go to war in solemn protest and in the name of an outraged humanity. When it was the Spaniards who were guilty of "unnecessary killing" (in Gov. Taft's elegant words) and of torture and of reconcentration, in Cuba and in the Philippines, we did not fall back on the cold philosophic comfort that "war is inherently a cruel thing"; that it is necessary to be "severe," and that, the more truculently we make war, the sooner will the enemy ask for peace. No, those salves we prudently reserved for our own conscience. The Spaniards we denounced to high heaven as monsters without excuse. Our war against them was to be a "holy" war; and it was as champions of religion and the tenderest humanity that we unfurled our banners, only to find that we were soon to allow, or at least to apologize for, in ourselves the things we had fiercely condemned in others. This is the moral tragedy of our Philippine war.

For the rest, Gov. Taft's testimony is a fine example of that official optimism on the husks of which we have been fed for three long years. When asked how his statements about the temper of the Filipino people could be reconciled with Gen. Chaffee's and Gen. Bell's, he could only shrug his shoulders and say that he looked at matters "from a different point of view." But which point of view is more apt to be correct—that of a civil governor, immersed in business and drawing his information mainly from natives in his pay, or that of a military governor, getting almost daily reports from his subordinates in all parts of the archipelago? However that may be, Gov. Taft's urging of a policy of the utmost "severity" against the Filipinos still in arms is likely to have a very bad effect, both in the Philippines and at home. It will be strange indeed if it does not lead in the islands to more of those cruelties which the hot-blooded soldier, not under the eye of an officer, will think are just the thing to employ against people who, Gov. Taft says, have "worn out their right" to lenient treatment and are committing a "crime against civilization." This, by the way, is a strange definition of crime to come from an American judge. A struggle for independence against enormous and apparently hopeless odds has been differently described by earlier American authorities. But we have changed all that, as we have also, in going over with Gov. Taft to the notion that a passion for liberty can be strangled by "severity," forgotten our other historic maxims. It is a problem of statesmanship, not of bloody war, which confronts us in the Philippines, and to the statesman, as John Bright said, "force is no remedy."

WHAT IS OUR "COMMERCIAL STRATEGY"?

The rambling report of the Senate Committee on Foreign Relations, urging the ratification of the treaty for the purchase of the Danish West Indies, speaks of the islands as "of great importance in a strategic way, whether the strategy be military or commercial." As for the military strategy involved in the proposed acquisition, everybody knows that it is the creation of our high naval theorists at Washington, who spend their time over a kind of transcendental *Kriegsspiel*, planning all sorts of likely and unlikely, possible and impossible attacks and defences. They are the chief advocates of the addition of St. Thomas to the other undigested lumps of empire now lying heavy on the national stomach, and but for them the appetite of the Senate, grown a little queasy as respects islands, would not be eager to swallow the Danish morsels. All this metaphysical strategy of the navy we must, of course, leave to the adepts in that recondite art; but what is meant by the "commercial strategy" of the Senate report? What do our Jominis of commerce refer to when they speak of our having a commercial plan of campaign at all?

If we have such a thing, it must be illustrated in our present attitude towards trade. No change is intended. We are to display our "strategy" in the Danish Islands just as we have done in the Philippines, just as we are doing in Cuba. That is, if St. Thomas and St. Croix have anything to sell, we shall do our best to prevent them from disposing of it, and shall set ourselves skilfully to the task of so impoverishing their inhabitants that they will be unable to buy anything of us. That, according to Gov. Taft, is the net result of our commercial tactics in the Philippines; that, as Col. Bliss testified, and as every wind that blows from Cuba tells us, is the able strategy which we have employed in that island. Thus we begin to see what the nature and aim of our commercial strategy really are. As those battles are considered the most subtly planned which result in the greatest possible victory with the least possible loss of life, so we plume ourselves on the exceeding slyness of our commercial methods, which enable us to keep imports and exports at the lowest possible figure. In other words, our commercial strategy consists, so far as our present laws and policies are able to determine it, in discouraging commerce.

Turning from the islands which we control to the great markets of Europe, we perceive that our strategy is directed to the closing of the doors which are now partly open to us there. Strategy in commerce must be like that of war in at least this respect, that it aims to divine the intentions of the enemy and to frustrate them. But ours we brag about most when it plays right into the enemy's hand. Our greatest existing commercial enemies in Europe are the Agrarians of Germany and the high protectionists of Austria and France. What they are hoping we will do is to reject all reciprocal trade arrangements, and keep our tariff rates on their goods at prohibitory figures. That will aid them in their plans for retaliation and for a complete shutting out of our exports. Mr. Vanderlip's article in *Scribner's* forcibly points out this peril, particularly in the case of Austria. Yet our profound trade policy, of which the Senate report speaks, is nicely calculated to do precisely what our opponents desire—to provoke hostile legislation and reduce our sales. This may be strategy, but it looks uncommonly like folly. We are falling into the same old stupid blunders which ruined the Dutch-English trade at the time when Canning wrote his celebrated poetical dispatch:

> "In matters of commerce the fault of the Dutch
> Is giving too little and asking too much;
> With equal advantage the French are content,
> So we'll clap on Dutch bottoms at twenty-per cent.
> Twenty per cent.
> Twenty per cent.
> *Nous frapperons* Falk with twenty per cent."

Our strategic cleverness in international commerce is strikingly illustrated by current events. Demand has outrun production in some lines of steel manufacture. Several of our railways are in urgent need of steel rails, but cannot get them made at home, and are seriously thinking of placing orders abroad. But our strategy has placed in the way a tariff of seven-twentieths of one cent a pound. That shows how smart we are. Yet at the same time, as the latest instalment of the report of the Industrial Commission shows again, "some of our exporters [notably steel-rail manufacturers, *teste* Mr. Schwab] make lower prices abroad than at home." This seems to us a new proof of our astuteness in trade, yet the Commission speaks of it as an abuse which Congress should investigate and correct. It also recommends that "tariff modifications" be made, along with "reciprocal legislation or arrangements," to take advantage of our "commercial opportunities." But commercial strategy, we should think the Commission would know by this time, looks to making the least possible of our commercial oppor-

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tunities. It cannot nullify them altogether. In spite of our laws, some trade will leap over the barriers we erect. But so far as we have any strategy written in statutes, so far as we have any commercial policy dictated to and accepted by a protection-frightened Congress, they are a strategy and a policy against international trade.

It is time that the tariff Rip Van Winkles at Washington waked up. With every skilled observer like Mr. Vanderlip warning us of the imminent danger of persistence in a policy of trade exclusion, with Western Republicans growing more and more outspoken in their demands for tariff revision, the sleep-walkers in the Capitol go on towards the precipice over which they and their party and the country are in peril of falling, unless they open their eyes and retrace their steps. "Strategy" may be against their doing anything, but common sense and the obvious needs of our commerce cry out for laws and treaties to make trade instead of killing it.

IRREPRESSIBLE IRELAND.

"An Irish stew," said disgusted Admiral Field, in the great Home Rule debate of 1893, "was the first thing they offered me when I landed in San Francisco. As if I had not enough of that at home!" But the signs are thickening that the English palate must resign itself to another taste of the delectable compound. The everlasting Irish question has lately been pushing itself to the front again in British politics, and bids fair to resume something like its old place in Parliamentary debates. Lord Salisbury, in his casual manner, dropped a remark the other day about Ireland being more unanimously and bitterly hostile to English rule than ever. This was a really pathetic confession, coming from an aged statesman who had devoted so many years of his life to successive "settlements" of the Irish difficulty. Yet it was as if his prophetic spirit were brooding on things to come, for in a couple of days there followed the election in East Down, where a traditionally safe and even uncontested seat was wrested from the Government, as the first fruits of the new "land-purchase" plan of campaign.

This, as everybody knows, is the movement to which the principal impetus has been given by T. W. Russell, M. P. for South Tyrone. The surprising thing about his attitude is, as our readers know, that he was formerly a stanch Unionist, even at one time a member of the Conservative Government, and a determined opponent of the Irish Nationalists. But he became convinced that Ireland had substantial grievances. He saw that behind the political question stood the land question. Even with the abolition of the grosser forms of rack-renting, even with the new system of judicial rents, even under the Irish Local Government Act wrung from the reluctant Conservatives, Mr. Russell found that the lot of the Irish farmer was intolerable. Indeed, the Government itself almost admits as much. It is now proposing a bill to enable tenants to buy out landlords. But Mr. Russell contends that this remedy is only skin-deep; that it will prove but one more of the half-way and now discredited acts for land purchase in Ireland; and he strikes boldly for a comprehensive measure which will everywhere in Ireland replace landlordism by "occupying ownership." Details of the scheme are set forth in his book, 'Ireland and the Empire.' The thing to note with present interest is the fact that he has won his first electoral battle with the Government, even on ground most favorable to the latter, and is defiantly challenging it to a fight all along the line.

The persistent vitality of the Irish agitation was well shown in the two nights of the debate on the Address from the Throne, when the spokesmen of Ireland held the floor. It was not simply that their speeches were witty, and lit up what had been a dull scene by flashes of invective and gleams of sarcasm. It was not alone that Messrs. Redmond and Healy were more than a match, both in eloquence and logic and law, for the Attorney-General for Ireland, who intervened, with lofty official condescension, in the debate. The great fact was that these Irish orators spoke, and knew that they spoke, for a united people, a people filled with a sense of burning wrongs and animated by a determination to protest and agitate and organize until redress was won. This was really the only vivifying part of the debate. On the South African question there was no sharp division of parties, no cleavage piercing below the surface. But Irish griefs and Irish demands were pressed home upon the attention of the Commons with a force and earnestness which may be temporarily rebuffed, but cannot be permanently quenched.

It should not be supposed that no measure of justice for Ireland can be passed until the Tory Government is turned out. Lord Salisbury has, as a matter of fact, accepted legislation for Ireland more radical, in some respects, than anything Mr. Gladstone advocated. Reference has already been made to the Irish Local Government Act—a Tory law, put upon the statute-books by the very Prime Minister who, in 1885, had declared that local government would never be applied to Ireland. It was the same Salisbury who, in 1887, called Heaven to witness that neither he nor his Government would ever interfere with judicial rents, but who afterwards found that what he called "existing circumstances" compelled him to do so, despite the outcries of Irish landlords. Mr. Morley, indeed, brought out of his scrap-book an awful extract from a speech of Lord Salisbury's in 1885—nothing less than an apology for Irish boycotting; the Conservative leader being, in that year, not at all sure that he should not have to rely upon Irish votes to become Prime Minister. "Let us, after all," said he in his beautifully detached and dispassionate way, "look at boycotting. It is more like the excommunication of the Middle Ages than anything we know now. The truth about boycotting is that it depends upon the passions of the population." It is this extreme adaptability, to speak of it handsomely, of English Conservatism which lends some plausibility to the belief of Sir Charles Russell that Irish Home Rule would yet be granted by the Tory party.

"On my word," Barry O'Brien reports him as saying, "I often think that we shall get Home Rule from the Tories. Remember that the Tories gave us Catholic Emancipation. Never mind [at a gesture from me] how or why they gave it to us. They did give it. They have now given us Irish Local Government, which is the complement of Catholic Emancipation; why should they not give us Home Rule, which would only be the complement of Local Government?"

Ireland's hope is in peaceful agitation. Fenianism and the Clan-na-Gael are her enemies, and are, we believe, more and more felt to be so by the Irish leaders, in spite of the wild and whirling words which they sometimes use, by way of keeping up their spirits. And there can be little doubt that Parliament will, in the end, listen to the measured and reiterated representations of the Irish people. But they must work in the spirit of the Irish poet Ingram, quoted by Mr. Russell:

"Each nation master at its own fireside—
The claim is just, and so one day 'twill be;
But a wise race the time of fruit will bide,
Nor pluck the unripened apple from the tree."

THE INVESTIGATOR AS TEACHER.

President Eliot, in his annual report, raises the question whether the position of a professor doing full work in a university is favorable or unfavorable to original research. He recalls that recent founders of professorships have specified that the holders should be allowed "leisure enough to contribute to the advancement of learning in their several departments." Behind such a provision there clearly lies the conviction that college professors generally do not have "leisure enough" for productive scholarship. That the present conditions of academic service in America are not favorable to investigation is, in fact, the chief, if not the sole, reason for great endowments for research like the Carnegie Institute. Of such endowments President Eliot sagaciously observes that "the world has little experience of wise schemes for this purpose," and he appears to believe that college and university professors, with all their

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disadvantages, are still quite as likely to be productive in research as the investigators who are free from academic trammels.

Certain drawbacks of the professorial life are, indeed, mainly imaginary. The majority of young investigators who carry their doctoral laurels to a minor instructorship consider their teaching simply a necessary evil. Classes and the innumerable details of college work seem so many obstacles to research. But it is inevitable, and most desirable, that these young men should drop from the sublimated atmosphere of the graduate school to the solid ground of ordinary serviceableness. That jolt does no harm, and often does much good. Even as specialists, most students gain distinctly by serving as teachers. It is a clarifying work. To present the main features of a subject to a class of young men or women is in some way to fix not only the methods of a specialty, but its wider relations to other specialties and to culture. This is a discipline without which the specialist remains more or less of a cave-dweller. Anything that brings him into ordinary useful human relations, short of undue encroachment upon his time, is distinctly to his benefit.

But it remains true that most of our college professors are needlessly hampered in their capacity as investigators by the quantity and conditions of their class work and by the miscellaneous administrative duties which fall to their lot. A university professor in America teaches more hours a week than his French or German colleague, and his work is of a more exacting sort. Where a Continental scholar gives from six to eight lectures a week, the American gives from ten to sixteen. In the one case the greater number of hours is filled by lectures delivered in rotation; in the other a considerable amount of drudgery is involved, such as the assigning and correction of exercises, the conducting of frequent examinations and informal tests, the keeping of elaborate records of scholarship, and even of attendance. From these things the professor at a European university is relatively free. That is, the American not only works more, but works harder than the French and German professor. The very measures taken to remedy this state of things bring almost as much work as they abolish. Promotion to be head of a department means, to be sure, a reduction of hours of teaching; but it also means the correlation of a score of courses, the appointment and supervision of associates and assistants, a new set of committees to direct and of records to keep.

Beyond the range of a professor's immediate duties, there are equally pressing claims upon those precious moments which should be consecrated to settling "*hoti's* business" and the "doctrine of the enclitic *de*." If he displays administrative capacity, the university will welcome him to a dozen working committees. Learned societies will make a bookkeeper of him, and teachers' conventions will require addresses. All of these demands, be it observed, are strictly professional, and may not be disregarded lightly. It would be easy to name more than one great investigator whose time, between departmental and general administrative duties, is fairly torn to tatters, and whose production in research is seriously diminished, both in quantity and in character.

The remedy is, obviously, to reduce the hours of instruction of the productive scholar, and to relieve him, so far as possible, of all part in general university administration. But this is easier to say than to do. First of all, it is not wholly easy to recognize the investigator who is worthy of this special exemption. The greater part even of university professors are not notable investigators, but find their largest usefulness precisely in their teaching and in their administrative activities. Next, it is frequently difficult on financial grounds to lessen the number of courses assigned to a professor; for some one else must be paid to do this work, and university budgets are notoriously in straitened circumstances. It should be, however, the duty and the pride of presidents and trustees to make just this discrimination, and to see that the great scholars, whose fame will be the prestige of the university, are not forced unduly into the mere work of administration. The governing bodies of universities, unluckily, have not much more soul than the average corporation. It is very likely that one of the most valuable functions of the Carnegie Institution will be not only to provide leisure for many an overtaxed investigator, but incidentally to stimulate both presidents and trustees to a keener appreciation of the high value of productive scholarship. Investigators generally should teach. Here we agree perfectly with President Eliot. But they should not teach as much as those who bring nothing to the university but approved civic and pedagogic capacity.

CUBA AND JAMAICA.

December, 1901.

It is only ninety miles from Cuba to Jamaica, and the smaller island resembles the larger in so many natural features that the visitor expects to find their population and their social character (allowing for the differences between English and Spanish rule) generally similar. The eastern end of Cuba is mountainous, and the mountains of Jamaica, which may be seen from Cuba in exceptionally clear weather, are of nearly the same height and covered by equally rich and beautiful forests. The climates are much the same, though that of Jamaica may be a trifle hotter. The staple products are the same. Both have relied upon the sugar-cane, and in a less degree upon tobacco and coffee, though the Cuban cigars have secured a higher place in the world's favor than those of Jamaica. Both produce excellent oranges and bananas. Both are naturally healthy countries, and may expect, now that science has shown itself certainly able to reduce, and probably able to extirpate, yellow fever, to become favorite health resorts in winter, to which visitors will flow in increasing numbers from North America and perhaps even from Europe.

Nevertheless, there are differences enough to make each seem new and strange after the other, and to give an interest to an examination of the causes of the differences. To begin with, Jamaica is by far the more densely peopled. Cuba, with an area of 36,000 square miles, has only 1,575,000 people. Jamaica, with 4,000 square miles, has nearly 700,000—that is to say, it is only about one-ninth of Cuba in size, with not much less than one-half of the population of the larger isle. Of these 700,000 only 15,000 are whites, whereas in Cuba nearly two-thirds are reckoned as whites, and little more than one-third as colored. It is true that in Cuba those who are not black are apt to be classed as whites, so that probably there is a good deal more than one-third of negro blood in the population taken as a whole. Still, even allowing for this, the African element is incomparably larger in Jamaica; and whereas thousands of Europeans are coming every year to settle in Cuba, scarcely any come to Jamaica, whose population is evidently destined to remain quite as largely a predominantly colored population as it is at this moment. Being so much more densely peopled, Jamaica is also far more fully cultivated. In the forest tracts of Cuba one finds only a stray clearing here and there, with a negro family or two dwelling in seclusion among its bananas, living on what the patch of land produces, and caring but little to carry vegetables or fruits or poultry to a town which may be many miles distant. Even in the fertile and open lowlands which cover so large a part of Cuba, great tracts lie untouched by the plough and unstocked with cattle. But in Jamaica it is only the rough and stony ground and the swamps (not very extensive) that remain unused. Among the steep ridges of the Blue Mountains, as high and as rugged as are the hills of Cuba, nearly all the available ground has been turned to account for bananas, or for coffee, or for the cultivation of vegetables by the negroes for their own use, so that there are tracks all over the slopes, and one seldom goes far without finding houses. This gives quite a different character to the landscape, and has much to do with that variety and richness which is one of the conspicuous charms of Jamaican scenery. There is perhaps less breadth of effect than in Cuba; and one feels everywhere, with the sea closing all the views from high ground, that one is in a small country. But there is great richness and finish of detail, the sense of human presence and human labor supplying an element which is frequently absent in the more ample landscapes of Cuba.

When one comes to the towns, the contrast is still more marked. Though Jamaica is less distinctively English than

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Cuba is Spanish, its streets and houses witness to the presence of a very different people. Here the advantage is with Cuba. Small cities like Cienfuegos and Trinidad, Manzanillo and Santiago, are cities, neatly laid out in Spanish colonial fashion, each with several large churches, two or possibly three centuries old, each solidly built, either of stone or of bricks, covered with plaster painted in bright colors. There is always a central plaza, and probably it is planted with handsome trees and flowering shrubs, with walks, and it may be a fountain. Usually there is also an Alameda on the outskirts. The whole place has a certain air of dignity. It seems to feel itself a city, with a respectable past, even if it has no ancient buildings and if it entirely lacks the tall piles and picturesque irregularity of the towns in old Spain. There is scarce anything of this in Jamaica, for even in the ancient capital, which the Spaniards called Santiago de la Vega, and which now goes by the name of Spanish Town, not many traces remain of the once dominant race. The towns of Jamaica have much less of a city air. Kingston, which is far the largest, with a population of 46,000 (the others are little more than villages), is entirely built of brick and wood. The brick, often dilapidated, is of an ugly color, and the wooden houses have a tumble-down look. There is a general air of squalor in the meaner streets and in the poorer suburbs, while even in the business parts of the town and in the villas of the richer people little has been done for beauty: One does not see the pretty *patio* which is characteristic of the Spanish house—an internal court, with its tiny garden and, perhaps, its fountain. The English, being a severely practical people, have built their warehouses, and offices, and even their villas with a view solely to business and to comfort. They keep the streets in better order than the Cubans do, or did before the reforming energy of the United States began to work upon places like Havana and Matanzas and Santiago. They provide a better surface for the cab driver and the wheelman. But Kingston, though the style in which the houses are built, with a sort of brick veranda or piazza raised above the street, gives it a kind of picturesqueness, is rather a mean-looking town, far less attractive than such places as Santiago or Cienfuegos.

The one merit of the Jamaican town is the extreme beauty of the trees, many of them showing brilliant flowers, which line the roads that lead out of it; and this merit belongs rather to nature than to the English. Yet, it is fair to add, when one speaks of the neglected and semi-squalid air of the poorer parts of the Jamaican towns, that something is due to difference of population. These towns are, except the warehouses and stores and the few villas of the Europeans, in reality negro towns. The negro, even when tolerably well off, has no care for neatness, and lives anyhow. In Cuba the negroes are the country-folk. In Jamaica they are the townsfolk also. Whether they are, as some say, more lazy and less intelligent than their Cuban brethren may be doubted. They are somewhat better educated, for the English have taken more trouble to provide instruction for them, and the Protestant missionaries have been more active among them than the Catholic priests have been in Cuba. But they don't seem, taken all in all, to be superior to the colored people of Cuba, though they have enjoyed freedom much longer.

There is another point in which the two islands may be compared. Both are, or think themselves to be, commercially unfortunate; and in both the planters ascribe their ill-fortune to the action of other countries. Both have depended chiefly upon sugar cultivation. In Cuba and in Jamaica one hears nothing but complaints of the depressed state of cane-sugar and the impossibility of making a profit out of it. The Cubans lament the protective tariff of the United States. The Jamaicans bewail the hard-heartedness of England, which has hitherto refused to impose upon the bounty-aided beet-root sugar of Continental Europe that countervailing import duty which would—so the Jamaican planters declare—save them from ruin. In both islands foreign optimists suggest similar remedies, telling the sugar men that if they would only introduce newer machinery, they could hold their own easily against beet-root sugar, and advising the extension of orange planting, in which both islands ought to be able to compete successfully with Florida, which has frosts to fear, and with southern Europe, whose fruit is generally inferior to that of the West Indies.

Here, however, the resemblance ends. Cuba needs labor and hopes to get it in greater quantity and in far greater efficiency by the immigration of Spaniards, especially the industrious peasantry of northern Spain. Jamaica has labor enough, and must be content with the kind of labor which she has, for no Europeans will come in to work in a country already tolerably well filled by a colored population. Black she is, and black she must remain. She may no doubt improve the quality of her black workers, but that will be a slow process. Cuba, moreover, sets great hopes on the development of her internal communications by the construction of a trunk line of railway, with branches north and south, in the eastern part of the island. Jamaica has already, if not as many railways as she needs, yet more than she can afford, for the Government to which they belong makes no profit out of them, and does not think of extending them at present. Unfortunately, they have been built with too wide a gauge. Thus, Cuba can at least feed herself upon bright prospects, which have no place on the more limited horizon of Jamaica.

Neither has Jamaica any political questions before her comparable to those grave and exciting ones which Cuba is called to solve. She has had no serious internal troubles since 1865. The disturbances of that unhappy year, due to unfair treatment of the negroes by the planters, led to the withdrawal of the form of representative government which then existed. Under the present Constitution, the Assembly is rather an advisory than a truly legislative body, for the Governor can when he pleases appoint a sufficient number of nominated members to enable him to pass the measures which he, or which the Colonial Office in England, wishes to see carried. There is always some grumbling in the British Crown colonies when acts are passed by a majority of nominated members against the votes of a majority of the elected members of any legislative body, and at present the elected members of the Jamaica Legislature complain of their practical impotence. But everybody admits that a country in which some 25 per cent. of the population are of African race, and in which from 80 to 90 per cent. have neither knowledge of nor interest in political questions, is not fit for self-government under representative institutions. She must depend upon the wisdom of those who rule her despotically in a more or less paternal spirit, either direct from England or through officials sent from England. The great bulk of the people appear, so far as a visitor can judge, to be content with her present position. The negroes and the people of mixed color, who in Jamaica hold themselves rather aloof from the pure blacks, are quiet and peaceable, and, for the most part, indifferent to politics. The whites are occupied with their economic depression, and want to get more help from home for the development of their industries. The finances of the island are in a depressed state, and even the aid which the mother country has given does not enable things to be done which ought to be done.

A concluding word may be said on the attractions of the two islands to visitors. Jamaica is perhaps the more beautiful of the two, for it not only has a more luxuriant vegetation, with a profusion of flowering trees, but has shores more generally picturesque. Nothing can be imagined more charming than the line of the north coast, with romantic bays, backed by richly wooded mountains and bright, foaming streams, descending to the sea in waterfalls or from the recesses of the limestone rocks. The climate is, however, a little warmer and perhaps a little moister. As respects hotel accommodation, Jamaica has less than she ought to have or might easily have, if her people were more enterprising, yet far more than Cuba can at present offer. Outside the neighborhood of Havana, there is scarcely a hotel in Cuba to be recommended. Jamaica has, however, besides two good establishments, one in and the other quite near Kingston, a creditable hotel at Port Antonio, to which most of the steamers from the United States ply, and several places in the interior offering tolerable quarters. If these were further improved, Jamaica might become a most attractive winter resort, for the interior is in many places high, and with a climate which is, especially in the western half of the island, fresh and even bracing, while never chilly. For the beauty of skies and landscape, no praise can be too high.

OMPTEDA'S NOVELS.

BERLIN, January 22, 1902.

The list of books for the Christmas season of 1901 was enlarged by the addition of 'Cäcilie von Sarryn,' by Georg Freiherr von Ompteda. The appearance of a new novel by Ompteda has grown to be a literary event of some importance in Germany. According to the reports gathered from all parts of the country by *Das Litterarische Echo*, he was the novelist second in request in 1901, while he stood first in 1900. Of single books his 'Eysen' was the one most called for in 1900, and held the second place among all German novels in 1901. His newest book appeared presumably too late in the year to affect the final result. Two

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of his principal novels are already approaching their tenth edition. In this land of many books and small sales, such figures show a comparatively large demand. The verdict of the lending-library and the bookshop is, of course, not necessarily conclusive as to literary values; but, in the case of Ompteda, popular favor has certainly not been won by sensational methods.

In the December number of *Das Litterarische Echo*, he writes briefly about the events of his life before the force of circumstances made him choose literature as his vocation. The family is of Friesian origin, and fled to Hanover to escape the persecutions of the Duke of Alva. In the new home, it rose to prominence, and played an honorable part in the history of the adopted land. Ompteda was born at Hanover on March 29, 1863. His father was the Lord Chamberlain of King George V., and voluntarily followed his master into exile after the events of 1866. The family settled in Dresden in 1872. Here young Ompteda entered upon a gymnasial course, but was afterwards transferred to a military school and became eventually an officer in the German army. He was an inattentive pupil, and his school days were by no means happy. In 1892 partial deafness, resulting from an accident, compelled his retirement from the army. Scribbling had long been the occupation of his leisure hours, and he had, indeed, issued a volume of verse, under an assumed name, as early as 1890. It was, therefore, natural that the changed circumstances of his life should transform the officer into the novelist.

Between his first book, 'Von der Lebensstrasse,' of the year 1890, and his last, 'Cäcilie von Sarryn,' of the year 1901, there is a longish list of others, almost entirely novels and short stories. It cannot be said with fairness that all are really worth reading. The list is rather long for the few years in which it has been in the making, and the author has perhaps had his difficulties in learning to use the tools of his new vocation. But he is at least never trivial. His statement that almost all that he has written was years in assuming shape in his mind before he went at the easier task of putting it on paper, may be the simple explanation of both his successes and his failures, for his weaker novels do not suffer so much from imperfections in plot and character-drawing as from bungling and inadequate expression. On the other hand, he has had his successes, which, though they may not rank among the great masterpieces, are enough to make him justly a prominent figure among German novelists of to-day.

Ompteda is at home in two places, the barracks and the city. He makes only brief excursions into village or country. What he knows best and treats best is, of course, the German officer, although not half of his heroes wear the uniform of the Kaiser. In his best military vein is 'Unser Regiment,' which appeared in 1895, and is a series of capital sketches of garrison life in a small city. The city might, indeed, as well be large as small, for it has next to nothing to do with these sketches, which depict the life of the young officer at work and at play, in the casino and on the drill-ground, on the march and by the bivouac fires during the autumn manœuvres. They are undoubtedly, in part chapters from the author's own life. Until the year 1889 he served as lieutenant with his regiment in the little Saxon city of Grossenhain.

In his 'Sylvester von Geyer' (1897) Ompteda tells the story of a representative of that large class of officers who turn to the army from a sort of instinct. For generations the men of their family have followed no other career. On innumerable battlefields they have fought for their sovereign, and in times of peace have drilled his troops, until the habit of being an officer has passed over into the very blood of their descendants. The Geyers are such a family. The father, to be sure, was not very successful in his profession, and resigned before the birth of Sylvester, to live, as best he might, on his scanty income in Dresden. The boy was not to enter the army, but the instinct in him was too strong for all parental plans. He exchanged the gymnasium for the military school, and afterwards served as lieutenant with his regiment in Meissen. In spite of periods of discontent and of inner protest against the sometimes irksome duties in the barracks and on the drill-ground, he felt himself in his proper element, and grew steadily in all the virtues of the officer until the author saw fit to cut him off at the early age of twenty-four. Ompteda, too, passed from the gymnasium to the military school in Dresden, and knew Meissen, where the family owned a vineyard, from his childhood. Perhaps 'Sylvester von Geyer' contains more than one page of autobiography. Be that as it may, it is certainly a charming boy's book for grown-up people. It and 'Unser Regiment' are the most interesting of all of Ompteda's works for the foreigner, if not for the German.

His 'Eysen' (1900) and 'Cäcilie von Sarryn' may also be counted among his best, the latter being perhaps more satisfactory than the former in both plot and execution. 'Eysen' may be briefly described as a problem novel of to-day, seeking to answer the question, How shall the German nobility adjust itself to the conditions brought about by the upgrowth of the aristocracy of wealth? The different persons in the book who bear the name Eysen face the problem each in his own way. Some make a failure and others a success of life, but the problem remains unsolved after all.

These two novels and 'Sylvester von Geyer' are loosely united in a series under the general title of "Deutscher Adel um 1900." This title has its obvious fitness for 'Eysen,' and does well enough for 'Sylvester von Geyer,' but can have only the most superficial connection with 'Cäcilie von Sarryn.' Nothing in the novel has to do with the privileges or prejudices of the nobility as such. It is a story of pathetic self-sacrifice, which could as easily have found its heroine in any burgher family which has too much money to starve and not enough to live on. Cäcilie is the Cinderella of the family, gifted only with a strong sense of duty and an immense capacity for loving. She scarcely dares to dream of wedded happiness for herself. When it at last approaches her in the guise of a middle-aged widower, and she is for once in her life almost ready to be selfish enough to desire something for herself, a railway accident results in the death of a sister, and leaves her in charge of a family of small children. Her pathetic struggles and her triumphant success in making useful men and women of the family thus thrust upon her, are told simply and well, although with so much of detail as to become tiresome at times.

Ompteda is a keen observer of every-day life. This fact explains both his limitations and his strength. The unusual seems not to exist for him; but what he sees on the streets and in the houses of Dresden or Berlin, he describes as few others can. The reader's pulse beats no faster as he occupies himself with one of his novels. They tell of no deeds of daring nor of tender hearts broken beyond the mending. German matrons will not lose sleep over them, as Barrie's mother did when she declined to go to bed till she saw how Stevenson got the laddie out of the barrel. On the other hand, it must not be forgotten that Germany is passing through a tremendous transformation. Commerce and manufacture are coming to the front, agriculture grows yearly less important relatively. Already it is true that the army and the city *are* modern Germany, and Ompteda is at home in both.

CHARLES HARRIS.

CHURCH LEGISLATION IN ENGLAND DURING THE XIXTH CENTURY.

OXFORD, January, 1902.

In 1832 "the Church of England as by law established" appeared to be destined to all but certain destruction. It was a time of reform nearly turning into revolution, when a man as cool-headed as Macaulay believed that the House of Lords would not last for ten years longer; and of all English institutions the Church Establishment stood to all appearance on the most shaky foundations. It was undermined by two patent defects. The obvious abuses of the Church were at least as bad as the obvious abuses of the State; the Church, again, which was termed national, had for more than a century ceased to be the church of anything like the whole nation. Even an optimist who was not terrified by the revolutionary aspect of the day might, with some assurance, have predicted that the Episcopal Church would, long before the century was over, either cease to be the church of the nation, or else be so remodelled as to comprehend within its limits the whole body of English Protestants. There seemed to be no alternative to either Disestablishment or Comprehension. This reasonable forecast has been falsified by the event. The English people have, during the nineteenth century, rejected the policy alike of Disestablishment and of Comprehension. The connection between State and Church has been preserved by the singular and unforeseen system of Concession combined with Conservatism. My aim is to explain, as far as is possible within the limits of a single letter, the nature and the causes of a course of proceeding which is recorded in a series of Acts of Parliament.

The first note of English ecclesiastical legislation has been Concession. Within the twenty years that followed the Reform Act, satisfaction was given to the demand for the removal of abuses which scandalized Churchmen no less than Dissenters. The Ecclesiastical Commissioners Act, 1836, the Church Discipline Acts, and other enactments soon made pluralism and the non-residence of the clergy matters of the past. Proper management of ecclesiastical

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property at once increased the resources of the Church, equalized the revenues of the bishops, and all but removed, among other abuses, the scandals connected with translation from an ill-paid to an overpaid bishopric. Practical reforms of this kind, owing to the respect paid by English law to vested interests, could not produce their whole effect at once. Still, they worked with rapidity. The Establishment of 1850 was the Establishment of to-day and not the Establishment of 1800. Abuses which, at the beginning of the nineteenth century, had not excited the attention even of religious men, had, by the middle of the century, become intolerable even to men of the world. When we remember that reform began practically only about 1836, the legal and moral effect produced by legislation of fourteen years may amaze the historian of law and opinion.

Concession, again, was made to the demand for the removal of any practical grievance whatever which was not absolutely involved in the maintenance of the Established Church. Dissenters and (to anticipate the phraseology of to-day) Agnostics detested the law which required that every marriage should be celebrated in accordance with the rites of the Church of England. The Marriage Act, 1836, permitted marriage in a Dissenting chapel in accordance with the forms used by a congregation of Dissenters, and created a form of civil marriage for the benefit of any one who deprecated the use of any religious ceremony. The Universities, which had been, in effect, institutions for the education of members of the Church of England and particularly of clergymen, were, step by step, opened to Dissenters, and at last (1878) made something like places of national education. The demand, to take another example, for divorce, which was theoretically denied to every one, but in practice was granted by Act of Parliament to the rich, was in 1857 satisfied by the creation of the Divorce Court.

These, of course, are merely examples of the general trend of legislation. Let a student go back beyond the date of the great Reform Act, and consider the effect of the repeal of the Test and Corporation Acts, 1828, and of the Catholic Relief Act, 1829. He will then see that, from the very commencement of the era of reform, Parliament has, for seventy years at least, in matters affecting the Church, made a continuous series of concessions to the demands of any class strong enough to force some practical grievance on the attention of the Legislature.

Concession, however, has been constantly combined with Conservatism, which has often assumed the form of illogical compromise of principle. Not a step has been taken in the direction of Comprehension. The national Church is not, in 1901, any more than it was in 1801, the church of the whole nation. Concessions to the demands of justice or of obvious expediency have been constantly, not to say systematically, compromised or marred by deference to the principles or the sentiments of Churchmen or of the clergy. The line of Marriage Acts which were intended to remove the grievances of Nonconformists or Agnostics did not entirely achieve either object. They did not, till recently, place a marriage celebrated in a dissenting chapel in the same position as a marriage celebrated in a parish church; and when, two years before the close of the nineteenth century, this more or less sentimental grievance was removed, the result was achieved in a way opposed to public interest, namely, by allowing the absence of a Registrar from any marriage celebrated either in a church or in a chapel. And the law which instituted an optional form of civil marriage has not as yet made the civil ceremony, with which alone the State is concerned, compulsory. Parliament, again, has, as it would generally be asserted, abolished church rates; it has, in fact, simply abolished the compulsory payment of church rates, but has saved the dignity and consulted the interest of the clergy by allowing a church rate to be imposed while abolishing the power of exacting the payment thereof. Parliament, to give a last example, has, in the face of clerical opposition, legalized divorce, but, with a want of logical consistency which may lead to very bad practical results, has allowed a clergyman of the Church of England, and therefore an official of the national Church, to refuse to celebrate the marriage of parties either of whom has been divorced from a husband or wife still living—with the result that the clergyman is allowed to treat the morality of the State of which he is an official as opposed to the morality of the Church of which he is a minister.

This system of Compromise, combined with Conservatism, has achieved a singular success, of which every critic must estimate the worth or the worthlessness in accordance with his own religious convictions. The Anglican Establishment is in 1901 more popular and more influential than in 1801. Disestablishment has been avoided, not a single doctrinal concession has been made to Dissenters; the position of the Church has rather been shifted than essentially changed.

What have been the circumstances which have made possible this strange though more or less successful policy? The answer lies in the study of public opinion, and may be summed, though I fear scarcely explained, in a few sentences. At the era of reform the Church was not really unpopular. It still possessed great influence, as was amply proved by the political annals of the years immediately following the Reform Act of 1832. The reformers of the day, whether Whigs or Benthamites, were assuredly not ardent Churchmen. The Whigs looked very coolly on the clergy, who as a body were Tories, and regarded religious enthusiasm of any kind as a dangerous sentiment, closely allied with intolerance. The Benthamites, some of whom were really Agnostics and might have been called without gross unfairness Atheists, looked with no sympathy on any kind of religious Establishment. But neither Whigs nor Benthamites had, by the time when they began to direct Parliamentary legislation, elaborated any scheme of church reform. One celebrated disciple of Bentham's did, it is true, put forward proposals which he thought might give some utility to the Establishment: James Mill propounded a scheme which, considering his character, one cannot suppose to have been advanced as a joke, for converting the Church of England into an institution for the propagation of utilitarianism, and the practical cultivation of the virtues which, according to the philosophy of Bentham, were best calculated to promote the happiness of mankind. To a modern reader this plan of reform—drawn up, by the way, very nearly at the date (1834) from which Church historians date the rise of the High Church movement—proves only that a philosopher of great mental power and, from some points of view, of strong common sense may totally misunderstand the condition of the society which he proposes to reform. Neither Whigs, therefore, nor Radicals were in 1832, or, indeed, at any time, prepared to reform the Church. All they could really do was to pursue the course which they in fact took: they removed patent abuses and abolished any privilege of the Establishment that was felt to be a pressing grievance by the classes which stood outside the boundaries of the Church. This conduct, as far as it went, was wise, but it had the unexpected though perfectly natural effect of increasing the influence because it removed the unpopularity of the Established Church.

Meanwhile, at the very moment when reformers who had conceived no scheme of Comprehension, and dared not, even if they wished, carry out any plan of Disestablishment, were in fact restoring the moral prestige of the national Church, the High Church movement, which itself was due to causes far wider than the special circumstances of the English political world, began to reinvigorate the energy of the clergy, and to create slowly but certainly a condition of sentiment utterly foreign to the Individualistic Liberalism which governed English legislation in every field of law from 1832 to say 1865. Nor has the change of political sentiment which has marked the last quarter of the nineteenth century, been otherwise than favorable to the moral influence of the Church. Here, however, it may be well for me to hold my hand, for it is not to be expected that the columns of the *Nation* should be open to long disquisitions on the connection between the changes in English law and the changes in English public opinion. My aim will have been attained if I can impress upon your readers the peculiarity of the course of modern ecclesiastical legislation in England, and suggest the conclusion that it is due to the general current of English opinion during the nineteenth century, taken in combination with the cross-current of opinion or of feeling of which the High Church movement has been the visible sign.

AN OBSERVER.

Correspondence.

THE COMMON LAW FOR THE PHILIPPINES.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Apropos of Philippine legislation, I had always supposed that, in attempting to govern the islands, we should administer justice according to the forms which have obtained there ever since the people were introduced to European civilization. The civil law and the common law are systems so entirely different and distinct that I did not for a moment suppose that any of us, even the most enthusiastic, would seriously entertain the idea of compelling the Filipinos to conform to our methods of pro-

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cedure. You may imagine my surprise and consternation, therefore, when I glanced over the pages of the Philippine Code of Procedure (Pub. Laws & Res. U. S. Phil. Com., 1901, No. 190), and find but little less than an attempt to foist a common-law practice upon a civil-law community—and this before we have fairly taken possession of their country, and before the people of those unfortunate islands have become familiar with our tongue; much less, therefore, with our jurisprudence. I wish you thought it worth your while to devote a few remarks to this phase of the Commission's legislation.

Very truly yours, LOUIS L. HAMMON.

MINNEAPOLIS, February 2, 1902.

AN ART-FOR-SCHOOLS ALLY.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Among the altruistic movements of the day there are two of much prominence which, growing up side by side, have done so irrespectively of each other, though they ought to be allied. These are the Municipal-Art—the effort to bring more beauty into cities and towns—and the Art-for-Schools. As yet the latter depends on private initiative and energy. Pictures are contributed by individuals and by organizations within and without the school—by teachers, classes, parents, by men and women acting through public spirit, by clubs which raise popular funds for the purpose, or, finding the object sufficiently in line with their own desires, contribute to it out of the club fund. To the latter group of donors the Municipal Art Societies and Village Improvement Associations should belong. For is not the purpose of the Art-for-Schools movement the education of the child in the knowledge of true beauty and the cultivation of his love for it? Is it not to train a generation which shall know and love beauty, to develop a public taste that shall make beauty law in home and street and city? What permanence for its results can city improvement expect or hope, if it have not such a public to appreciate and defend from spoliation its hard-earned victories? In so far, then, as the movement for civic æsthetics looks into the future, its cause and that of the effort to bring art into the schools are the same. Each would educate the child in culture—the one acting for the child's sake primarily, the other for the anticipated result upon the community.

The Improvement Society, in loyalty to itself, may even seek specifically its own ends while aiding the Art-for-Schools endeavor. Suppose, in the case of the high school, it confine its contributions to Municipal Art subjects, either scattering these pictures through the different rooms and halls of the school, or taking charge of a corridor and devoting it to a suggestive, logical, scientifically arranged, and locally pertinent exhibit. Pictures that properly belong to this subject—including, as they must, examples of monumental sculpture and architecture—are found in all the lists of "pictures appropriate for school decoration." The plan, therefore, would not mean the introduction of a new subject, but the more certain provision of the very pictures which are wanted, and then the increase of their efficiency and value by grouping, if desired, and inevitably by the child's perception of their local application merely through connecting their presence in the school with the donors' obvious ulterior object.

So long is the list of appropriate pictures, with plazas, *piazzas*, and bridges, with civic sculpture, with water-front and street scenes, with religious and Government buildings and mural paintings, that one is tempted to take up the fascinating task of going through the catalogues to prepare a special city-improvement list. It would deserve to find a ready demand if attention were given not merely to the titles but to their order of sequence. But at best such a list, if general, could be only suggestive. The collection, to attain the greatest value, would require local appropriateness. Suppose a river, bisecting the town, gives to it a conspicuous water-front which in the past has been neglected. Clearly, the Town Improvement Society in selecting a list of pictures for presentation—we will say to the high school, where a main corridor has been set apart for it—will do well to choose several views showing successful water-front treatment. These can vary from the elaborate Thames Embankment or the formal and costly quays and bridges of Paris to waterside parks, as the Lakefront at Chicago; to playgrounds, as Charlesbank, Boston; to drives, as the Speedway in New York or the Shore Drive in Chicago; or to the quiet walks at the edge of Amsterdam's placid canals. These pictures would not form the whole of the exhibit, but a conspicuous and suggestive portion of it; and if the subtle influence of pictures upon the mind of a child be as potent as is claimed, there would grow up a generation that would not be satisfied with the continued neglect of the town's river-front.

What is done to point out this opportunity might be done as well for the other local problems—for a dominating hill, for the intersection of important diagonal thoroughfares, for the grouping of public buildings, for the treatment of parks, squares, or playgrounds. And if the town itself have something good in the way of civic art, this should be emphasized and given a place among the other examples gathered from all the world, its comparison and classification made unmistakable. Thus, with the cultivation of municipal ideals, with education, there will grow up in the child an intelligent civic pride. If the town does not have something good in the way of civic art, its shameful lack should be as plainly pointed out.

There is one other thought in this connection. The Art-for-Schools movement is now dependent almost wholly upon voluntary contributions for support and extension. Some of its friends, indeed, look forward to a day when the decoration of the schoolrooms with photographs of artistic objects will be held to be as strictly the duty of the municipality as the tinting of the walls is now coming to be and as the provision of desks has been. May not that result, or at least its attainment in part, be hastened if the Municipal Art value of the movement be pointed out? For then city or town may frankly ask itself whether, maintaining its own the municipal standpoint, it may not properly include this among its other efforts for the advancement of the community—whether it be not, in fact, its duty to itself thus to teach its future citizens to love and wish for civic beauty, inspiring in their hearts a wish to make their own environment as beautiful or splendid as other cities are or have been, and to have done in its behalf what has been elsewhere done. An appropriation to be used for this phase of the Art-for-Schools movement would be an expenditure of public moneys for public art in a double sense. It would have popular approval far more quickly than would the municipality's purchase of photographs or casts of Grecian deities, its provision of animal pictures, of views of scenes in English history, of landscapes, and so on.

In the alliance of the two movements there appears to lie such certainty of benefit to each that the marvel is that they have been for so long indifferent to each other. CHARLES MULFORD ROBINSON.

ROCHESTER, N. Y., February 5, 1902.

Notes.

Prof. Willard Fiske of Florence, whose American address is in care of Cornell's Librarian, has raised a modest hue-and-cry after a missing manuscript on the game of chess from the pen of the Rev. Louis Rou. In the middle of the eighteenth century Mr. Rou was pastor of the French Protestant church in this city, and his controversial treatise was, in 1859, at least temporarily in possession of the late George Henry Moore, librarian of the New York Historical Society, who lent it to Mr. Fiske. It has now been lost to view. It is a thin small quarto of twenty-four pages, and may be lurking in some private library of a descendant of Mr. Rou. Portions of the treatise were printed in 'The Book of the First American Chess Congress' in 1859.

Dodd, Mead & Co. make the important announcement of their intention to reprint from the original manuscript, verbatim, the Journals of Lewis and Clark, to be edited by Reuben Gold Thwaites, who thus "rests" from his arduous labors upon the Jesuit Relations. The late Dr. Coues had the benefit of this long-hidden manuscript for his monumental commentary on Biddle's recension of the narrative, but not till the work was well under way. Probably he would have discarded Biddle altogether had he been informed in time.

During the present month D. Appleton & Co. will bring out a new edition of 'Personal Memoirs of Philip Henry Sheridan,' by his brother, Brig.-Gen. M. V. Sheridan, extended from 1871 to the elder Sheridan's death in 1888; a new edition of the fateful third volume of Maclay's 'History of the United States Navy,' modified in accordance with the findings of the Schley inquiry; 'The Pageant and the Ceremony of the Coronation,' by Charles Eyre Pascoe; 'The Earth's Beginning,' by Sir Robert Stawell Ball; 'Practical Forestry,' by Prof. John Gifford; and a 'History of Ancient Greek Literature,' by Harold N. Fowler.

Messrs. Putnam's speedily forthcoming publications embrace a "King Edward Edition" of Traill's 'Social England,' in six volumes, with 2,500 illustrations and numerous colored plates; 'The Administration of Dependencies,' by Alpheus H. Snow; 'The Famous Families of New York,' by Margherita Arlina Hamm; 'The Banquet Book,' a classified collection of quotations, by Cuyler Reynolds; 'The Story of the Vine,'

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by Edward R. Emerson; and 'Field-Book of American Wild Flowers,' by F. Schuyler Mathews.

R. H. Russell's spring announcements include 'The True Napoleon: A Cyclopædia of Events in his Life,' by Charles Josselyn, and 'The Speckled Brook Trout,' by various experts, illustrated by Louis Rhead.

The Abbey Press has in preparation 'A Tour in Mexico,' by Mrs. James Edwin Morris, and 'A Soldier's Honor, with Reminiscences of Maj.-Gen. Earl Van Dorn,' by his comrades.

Frederick Warne & Co., who have removed to No. 36 East Twenty-second Street, will shortly issue a romantic story, 'Gripped,' by Silas K. Hocking.

Stephen Phillips's poem, "Ulysses," is to be published as a separate volume by Macmillan Co. It has just been put on the stage in London.

Messrs. Scribner announce 'Reconstruction and the Constitution,' by Prof. John W. Burgess.

The Pennsylvania Society of New York's Yearbook, now in press, summarizes "the more important historical and patriotic events of the year as they relate to Pennsylvania." It will be illustrated. The editor is the Society's Secretary, Mr. Barr Ferree.

We have received from Messrs. Lippincott further volumes in the Dent series styled the "Temple Bible," to which we have already favorably directed attention. Leviticus has been edited by J. A. Paterson, D.D., who points out that "the progress of Biblical criticism, especially in recent years, has really been due to the application of the Evolution theory to the problems of Israel's development. . . . It may safely be averred that Darwin's theory has contributed as much to the progress of intelligent study in the departments both of History and of Religion, as it has to the advancement of any branch of Natural Science." The editor of Exodus is A. R. S. Kennedy, D.D., who has a section on the literary problem of the Pentateuch. The gospels of St. Matthew and St. Mark have been cared for by the Dean of Ely. All these volumes are prefaced by mottoes for edification, and critical introductions, and conclude with "Biblical References in English Literature."

The defects in the natural history of the Scriptures (King James version) are touched upon incidentally in the interesting little volume on 'The Animals of the Bible,' by Gambier Bolton (London: George Newnes; New York: Scribners). Thus, the hyena is nowhere named, though it is generally agreed that Isaiah (xiii. 21) mentions this very common beast in Syria and Mesopotamia. "We must remember that many of the animals to which we shall refer were quite unknown to our English translators of the Bible in 1604." They were not, however, perhaps responsible for the coney's chewing its cud (Lev. xi., 6). The text is illustrated.

Lord Durham's Report on Canada in 1839 has long held its fame as a model of wise statesmanship, and its reprint now (Methuen & Co.) undoubtedly breathes the hope that its principles of leniency and conciliation may be applied in distracted South Africa as they were with such happy effect in Canada sixty years ago, when the High Commissioner found "two nations warring in the bosom of a single state." Indeed, no name has been oftener, in the Commons, thrown in the teeth of Chamberlain than Durham's, unless it be Burke's; and the Report is, in truth, a very arsenal of weapons against the Chamberlain policy.

In their 'Short History of England for School Use' (Macmillan) Miss Coman and Miss Kendall undertake a task beside which the preparation of a learned monograph is mere child's play. Every one will admit that it requires special talent to write a first sketch of any kind; but only those who have read one manual after another, each dryer than the last, until they think they know every modern work of this sort, can fully realize the difficulty of writing an English history for beginners. The usual fault is that the author is determined to pack too much information into his narrative. Miss Coman and Miss Kendall have succeeded better than most of their predecessors, but, if any shortcoming need be looked for, we would suggest that they have gone too far in the other direction. They are so strictly on their guard against overloading with detail that the element of fact, as opposed to dissertation, sometimes tends to appear rather light. The volume with which this may most fitly be compared is S. R. Gardiner's 'Outline of English History.' Miss Coman and Miss Kendall may claim an undoubted superiority in respect to their illustrations, their maps, and the mechanical features of their volume; but when it comes to the text, we cannot express the belief that they will drive Gardiner out of the field. As a practical textbook, however, their addition to the literature of this baffling subject is distinctly meritorious.

What are called "laboratory" methods of anthropology are illustrated in 'Experimental Sociology, Descriptive and Analytical,' by Frances A. Kellor (Macmillan). Delinquents in general are here dealt with, questioned, measured, and tested in the various ways known to physiologists and psychologists. Incidentally, some facts concerning the penal systems of the Southern States, which are of interest, are communicated. The scientific value of such investigations was clearly determined by Mill, in his 'Logic,' and this work illustrates his reasoning. It would, in any case, be difficult to believe that researches deserving the name scientific could be described in English so obscure, so slovenly, so ungrammatical, even, as is here sometimes employed.

There is a refreshing directness of speech, proceeding from clear ideas and well-digested plans, in the latest report of the Librarian of Congress. Much the larger part of the handsome volume (well worth its binding) is occupied with a select list of accessions and with a detailed account of the organization and present collections of the Library, with numerous departmental photographic views. Mr. Putnam has to tell, in his report proper, of his epoch-making scheme for the sale of printed cards to all the libraries of the country; of his regular exchange of cards with some of the more important, so that knowledge of the contents of the National Library may be readily accessible at many centres. He relaxes nothing of his request for a sufficient number of cataloguers, nor of sufficient compensation for expert service. The position of head of the Division of Manuscripts became vacant a year ago and more. "I have not filled it," says Mr. Putnam; "I cannot fill it properly until the salary shall be placed upon a reasonable basis. It should be $3,000"—against $1,500 assigned to it. The Library, he remarks, depends wholly upon its annual appropriation. No money gift has ever been made to it. It is outbid at auction sales by other libraries. The memory of Caleb Cushing and Edward Everett is revived in connection with the account of the Oriental collection and of the acquisition of a Columbus codex. Perhaps the most curious function of the library is the provision of a room for reading aloud and for musicales on behalf of the blind.

Simultaneously with the report are issued 'A List of Books, etc., on Samoa and Guam,' and the scheme of classification adopted for Class Z—bibliography and library science. The Library also distributes among its exchanges the Handbook of the Library building compiled by Herbert Small, and published by Curtis & Cameron, Boston, with copious illustrations.

Another fine library building is illustrated in the memorial volume, 'The State Historical Society of Wisconsin' (Madison), compiled by Reuben Gold Thwaites, and embodying the exercises at the dedication on October 19, 1900. The cost of this building was 20 cents per cubic foot, or 29 cents inclusive of equipment. The leading address, by Charles Francis Adams, is here reproduced at length. An appendix to it should not be overlooked, for it contains a full transcript of John Quincy Adams's several utterances in Congress maintaining the war power over slavery, with pertinent extracts from his diary. This and much other interesting matter is revealed in the index. A few years ago, who would have thought of indexing a work of this character?

There comes to us the first number of *Records of the Past*, published monthly at Washington by Records of the Past Exploration Society, and edited by the Rev. Henry Mason Baum and Frederick Bennett Wright. It declares itself "a strictly scientific publication." The initial contents relate to American antiquities, archæological interests in Asiatic Russia (contributed by Prof. G. Frederick Wright, fresh from the scene), and Pompeii. There are plentiful illustrations—those from Siberia most interesting.

The Quarterly Statement for January of the Palestine Exploration Fund contains an interesting description of the celebration of the Samaritan Passover on Mount Gerizim, by the Rev. Dr. J. E. H. Thomson. The partakers of the seven paschal lambs were 160 in number, all above the average height and with noble faces. There were apparently no Jews present, but a great crowd of Moslems, who were with difficulty prevented by the Turkish police "from bursting through the ring of celebrants and, by touching the lambs, desecrating the sacrifice." The high priest, in answer to a question in regard to a Samaritan Greek version made as an offset to the Septuagint, asserted "that when Ptolemy sent to Palestine for 70 translators, they in Jerusalem sent 65 and they in Samaria sent 5, . . . and that they had still the 5 versions made by their representatives." Among the other contents are articles on the Hospital of St. John by the late Dr. Schick, with an elaborate ground plan; on Golgotha by Gen. Sir C. W. Wilson; and

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archæological notes by Prof. Clermont-Ganneau.

In the *Annales de Géographie* for January two large charts show graphically the results of observations of the Aurora Borealis at numerous stations in both hemispheres. We mention an article on the intimate relationship between geography and sociology, and a powerful appeal for the reforesting of the Pyrenees. A large number of facts and statistics, fortified by striking photographs showing the effects of erosion, lead up to the statement that "the Pyrenean water courses are more and more insufficient for the economic needs which they create; their average discharge is diminishing. There is only one remedy, that which the Russians, Americans, Spaniards, etc., employ to-day—to plant trees." There is further an illustrated description of the principal topographical forms of Burgundy, and an examination of the Elbe system, as a contribution to the special science known as potamology.

Longfellow is evidently held in high esteem by the French educational authorities. They have selected nine of his poems, including "The Village Blacksmith" and "A Psalm of Life," in which the candidates for the diploma essential for an appointment as professor of English in normal and high-class schools will be examined during the next three years. The other works chosen are selections from Aikin and Barbauld's 'Evenings at Home,' and Miss Corner's 'Every Child's History of England,' and Wordsworth's "Michael." The diploma for second-class schools requires examination in Mrs. Browning's 'Aurora Leigh,' Thackeray's 'Four Georges,' Macaulay's Essays on Milton and Warren Hastings, and Pinero's 'The Princess and the Butterfly.' This is the outcome of a movement for the exclusive teaching of foreign languages in French schools by Frenchmen or persons willing to be naturalized.

—The February *Atlantic* has two articles of special literary interest, "Reminiscences of Walt Whitman," by J. T. Trowbridge, and a study of the "Fame of Victor Hugo," by George McLean Harper. Mr. Trowbridge knew Whitman intimately from an early period of his career, and writes with a warm appreciation of his virtues, both as a man and as a poet, though with no disposition to make virtues out of mere eccentricities of character or deficiencies of training. In the first edition of 'Leaves of Grass,' he found much that seemed to him formless and needlessly offensive, and these faults were emphasized in the second and third editions. Yet he felt the spell of "the tremendous original powers of this new bard, and the freshness, as of nature itself, which breathed through the best of his songs or sayings." Mr. Trowbridge throws light particularly on Whitman's life in Washington during the civil war, and his relation to Emerson. Professor Harper's conclusion as to the fame of Victor Hugo is that the unfavorable attitude of the great critics, such as Nisard, Faguet, Lemaître, and Brunetière, is a safer indication for the future than Hugo's popularity with the masses. Even more than the public of his own day, posterity will appreciate his wonderful mastery of the French language, his energy and versatility, his exuberant imagination; but his intelligence will be regarded as of a secondary order. William Garrott Brown of Harvard contributes a good paper on "Lincoln's Rival," Stephen A. Douglas, or rather on Lincoln and Douglas together. The value of the paper lies in its recognition of the fact that the right side of the great struggle for negro enfranchisement can best be presented by a thoroughly fair treatment of those who, for one reason or another, ranged themselves partly or wholly on the side of the wrong. An editorial review of the Scudder biography of Lowell repeats what is perhaps the only serious blunder of the types in the two volumes, by which the poet is made to say, in the closing lines of "The Oracle of the Goldfishes":

> "And I am happy in my sight
> To love God's darkness as his light."

—The Caxton Club of Chicago has printed a handsome quarto volume by Mr. Cyril Davenport of the British Museum, upon the work of Thomas Berthelet, "Royal Printer and Bookbinder to Henry VIII., King of England." The name does not occur in the great Dictionary of National Biography, but this is not surprising in view of the fact that never, in Great Britain, has the artist in what are called "subsidiary" or "minor" arts been taken very seriously. Even in France the dictionaries of reference, previous to the as yet unfinished Grande Encyclopédie, are inadequate in their treatment of such followers of the byways of intellectual life. A very bad painter, a Fuseli or a Haydon, goes, but the best of decorative artists is assumed to be of little interest, he or his works, to the reading public. As to Berthelet, however, and to the book about him, the documentary evidence concerning him and his work is arranged in chapter ii. of thirty pages, and his book-bindings are criticised and the more remarkable of them closely described in chapter iii. of forty pages more. The pages previous to chapter ii. are devoted to an account of English bookbinding before the time of Henry VIII. All this is the work of an admitted expert, one who is also the author of three separate books on bookbinding in addition to other treatises on kindred subjects. It is, however, the illustrations which will most charm the student. Nothing better in the way of printing in color and gold has yet been offered. A trustworthy observer of such matters said to the writer not long ago that these were the finest reproductions in color of the flat covers of books that had yet been made—that is to say, those in which the illusion of reality was the most perfect; and only the recollection of the magnificent work done for the Burlington Fine Arts Club, and of a certain volume, a bookseller's venture, by Quaritch of Piccadilly, prevents our complete adherence to that view. As regards the two books especially named, the leathers in the Burlington Club book are represented as dim and soft in tone, as the morocco of two hundred years ago usually is, and as we love to see it, while those in the Caxton Club book are shown gleaming, as if newly oiled. We admit the possibility of a difference of opinion with regard to this. Perhaps the examples copied by the workmen (unnamed) who made the plates for the American book were in the possession of some amateur who loved to keep his treasures in high apparent condition, fresh and shining; and this again is a matter of taste. Besides the bindings, the Caxton Club book gives the facsimile of a title-page of 1532: 'Jo Gower de Confessione Amantis. Imprinted at London in Fletestrete by Thomas Berthelette, Printer to the kingis grace An MDXXXII, cum privilegio'; and opposite page 16 a reproduction of the *impresa* which the printer used—a more elaborate and more pictorial scheme than is generally used for such a device. There are, moreover, several other illustrations in the text, copies, printed in red on a tint, of heraldic bearings, mottoes, and the like, which are not given in the plates; and plate iv. has especial interest as showing the edges of a volume bound up for the first Defender of the Faith, since these edges bear a royal motto in gilded capitals.

—We thought we had said our last word on the 'Jesuit Relations' (Cleveland: Burrows Bros. Co.), when the publication of documents ceased, but the appearance of the general index brings us back to the subject once more. This last part of the work—so essential a feature of its usefulness—has been wonderfully well done. By glancing through vols. lxxii. and lxxiii., one can now see what a wide range of subjects the series embraces, and how fully it illustrates the history of New France. That proper names and subjects are both represented is a most inadequate statement. The index forms a complete analysis of contents. Take, for example, the word "bark (of trees)," and follow out the entries under it. "*As material:* for cabins [96 references]; canoes [57 references]; casks, boxes, etc.; cords; snares; cradles; household utensils; kettles; shields; sledges; tombs. *Other uses:* beds and bedding; litter for sick; (birch) in place of writing paper; dead shrouded in; eaten in time of famine; embroidery on; in Indian medicine; packages wrapped in; torches." We have given the number of references only in the case of bark cabins and bark canoes. Altogether, there are hundreds of references under the word "bark." "Mosquitoes" is treated with a like respect. "Beaver" receives greater prominence still, with heads, sub-headings, and hundreds of special references. These may be taken as minor examples. In the case of a large subject like "Indians" the classification becomes much more elaborate, and recalls the arrangement of a public library. Forty-seven pages of the index are given to Indians in general, apart from the numerous references to separate tribes. It is unnecessary to multiply details. This long set of the 'Jesuit Relations' closes with a complete and exhaustive index which is based upon logical methods and worked out with scrupulous care.

—'The Tale of the Great Mutiny' (Scribners) swells the number of those warlike and patriotic volumes which Dr. W. H. Fitchett seems bent upon producing. No one is a more convinced defender of his cause, or shows himself more anxious to defend the reputation of Englishmen for vigor and ruggedness. As J. K. Stephen, in merry mood, once observed of England:

> "The Saxon and the Celt
> She equitably rules;
> Her iron rod is felt
> By countless knaves and fools."

Dr. Fitchett, when he can discover his "masterful" Englishman (and it is no difficult matter), makes the most of him, especially if he is charging an armed Sepoy

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half-drunk with bhang. "The level pistol, no doubt, had its own logic; but more effective than even the steady and tiny tube was the face that looked from behind it, with command and iron courage in every line. That masterful British will instantly asserted itself." We need not expect to find in this book a complete or dispassionate account of the Mutiny. Dr. Fitchett neglects to describe the general state of feeling in India when the rebellion broke out, and he closes promptly with the storming of Lucknow. His main theme is the promptness and daring which were so abundantly displayed when once the disturbance had arisen. We need not recall the Lawrences, Havelock, Edwardes, Nicholson, Outram, and the other heroes with whose names these pages chiefly abound. As a work of edification Dr. Fitchett's "tale" is well done. He does not make the tragedy of Cawnpore too lurid or the defence of the ridge at Delhi too superhuman. His praise of British valor is unceasing, but under the circumstances it cannot appear extravagant. By drawing largely from the memoirs of the period, which are abundant, he has added the proper touch of local color, while his love of incident does not seriously interfere with his delineation of the drama as a whole. In style this is a book which will be best appreciated by boys, but its graphic pictures of catastrophe and courage need not be for the young alone.

—'The French People,' by Mr. Arthur Hassall (Appletons), is a new volume in the "Great Peoples Series," edited by Prof. York Powell of Oxford. Although there is much of interest and value in the book, we feel that Mr. Hassall has neglected to make the most of a fine opportunity. In other words, he writes of the land and its annals, where he should be writing of the nation. No European state equals France in symmetry of development; nowhere else is the growth of the national organism so easily to be followed. Moreover, it is the design of this series to accentuate the idea of national evolution by dwelling upon the life of the people rather than upon politics alone. Of one shortcoming Mr. Hassall may be altogether acquitted: he has not made his sketch a bare political outline. But, when we consider the beauty of the process whereby the West Francia of Charles the Bald became the France of Louis le Gros, and the France of Louis le Gros became the France of Louis XI., we can only regret that Mr. Hassall has not succeeded better in describing the welding of the nation during the Middle Ages. We do not mean to imply that this motive is altogether disregarded. We would say no more than that Mr. Hassall falls short of the opportunity which the subject offers. Instead of following the operations of the strongest force, or even of describing the duel between feudalism and the crown, he devotes his attention to a number of things which, while important, are not of the first importance. A sense of relative complexity is thus created, where the greatest stress should have been placed upon the attainment of unity. In a treatise like the present, considerations of space should always be kept in sight by the reviewer, as well as by the author; but our criticism is the less weakened at this point because Mr. Hassall might well have spared something from his account of the period since the Revolution. The seventeenth and eighteenth centuries are also disposed of too shortly, in order that the era from 1789 onward may receive a greater share of attention. Prof. York Powell, in outlining the conception of his series, says: "It will try and show how populations such as dwelt in the lands we now call France and Spain gradually came to be peoples with peculiar and characteristic nationalities of their own, and how, all through the progress of their development, they influenced other peoples materially, morally, and mentally, whereby certain elements of our own present-day lives and circumstances may be accounted for." Judged by the standard of his editor, Mr. Hassall has succeeded less perfectly with France than Major Hume did with Spain. Finally, this volume seems to show signs of hasty preparation and of a too negligent revision. Slips like Beaumanois for Beaumanoir, and Courbetin for Coubertin, are not infrequent; while on page 51 occurs the following piece of enumeration: "Six states were set up—Italy, Germany, Provence, Transjurane, Burgundy, and France." Moreover, the writer's attitude toward modern France is too deeply affected by the views of Mr. Bodley. Mr. Hassall has long since proved himself to be a good historian, but we cannot express the belief that this is one of his most successful works.

GENERAL ALGER'S APOLOGIA.

The Spanish-American War. By R. A. Alger, Secretary of War March 5, 1897, to August 1, 1899. With maps. Harper & Bros. 1901.

That President McKinley anticipated no armed conflict when he took office is clear from his choice of a Secretary of War, and the outcome of that selection shows afresh the kindly watchfulness of Providence over the American people. An Apology would be the better title for this exculpatory volume, whose preface disclaims presenting a full history of the war, and whose obvious motive is to put on record a plea in avoidance in the hope of obtaining partial relief from popular censure. Its declared object is to note some of the conspicuous conditions affecting the active army, with an account of the administration of the War Department, in the naïvely expressed hope that it "will serve a useful purpose as an example" in another crisis. Had "example" been frankly written "warning," it would have been better, for, whether recognized or not, 'The Spanish-American War' is the history of administrative blundering relieved only by the skill and courage of subordinate officers and their commands. The ex-Secretary lays just blame upon Congress for habitual neglect of the army in peace, gives numerous illustrations of Gen. Miles's professional unfitness for his responsible position, complains that the naval forces did not coöperate properly with the army in the field, and places upon the President the discredit of such appointments as were objectionable. He extols the chiefs of the administrative bureaus as models of intelligence and energy, defends General Egan in everything but his intemperate vileness of speech, minimizes the sanitary defects of the great camps, gives a rosy sketch (with no intelligent detail) of the situation in the Philippines, and appears to regard Gen. Shafter as the highest expression of military efficiency. The convincing section is the one in which he allows General Miles to condemn himself out of his own mouth as a commanding general. One illustration of this out of many was his proposal to transfer to Cuba, regardless of the difficulties of marine transportation and debarkation and of subsistence, 15,000 newly raised cavalry, and the assumption that there soon would be from 30,000 to 50,000 prisoners, of whom "we could employ at reasonable compensation such as desired occupation in road building." There is no concealment of Gen. Alger's contempt for the commanding general as a military counsellor.

When the war opened, there was nowhere a military body superior to the rank and file of the army in selected physique, individual character, and essential discipline. But it was very weak in numbers, and the temporary enthusiasm of the volunteer legions behind it poorly replaced instruction and experience. In its lower grades the permanent establishment was well officered, and it was by these officers and the superb soldiery immediately under them that victory was compelled. The generals were few, and in great part had been selected upon the principle which governs kissing. In the long years of peace, all of these were mere supervisors of geographical departments, administrative functionaries engaged in keeping at the lowest limit the expenses of their commands, and in receiving and preparing routine reports, usually of trifling concern. The system was at fault. It did not foster military efficiency. Those who remained soldiers were such by the grace of God and not by aid of the War Department, whose deadly centralization suppressed all initiative. The administrative bureaus of science and supply were similarly crippled. They had power of a kind, but they maintained a hand-to-mouth existence with no reserve and with no thought for the morrow. Back of it all was Congressional parsimony, due to a popular opinion which asked for nothing else. Unwillingness to appropriate beyond visible needs, incredulity as to the possibility of any war, faith that an essential virtue belonged to the baptismal rite of mustering-in, so that a volunteer received soldierly efficiency with his uniform, not only discouraged but made impossible in peace that preparation for war which immemorial experience has counselled. There thus grew up about the War Department a sentiment that the smallness of an estimate showed efficiency, and to turn into the Treasury an unexpended balance was brilliant administration. Congressional illiberality compelled administrative pinching, and complicated rules of financial responsibility led to timorous hesitation. The official conditions discouraged initiative and originality. The troops were fed and clothed, quartered and paid, better than those of any other army. There excellences ceased. The individual was well cared for, but the organization was stunted. The exception was a long-standing nominal provision for a coast armament, whose realization, indeed, had languished, but was now helped by hasty purchase with the defence fund of foreign guns before proclamations of neutrality closed the doors of sale.

The ex-Secretary has no shame for his predecessors or himself as at all account-

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able for the chaos into which the first pressure precipitated this general unpreparedness. He seems to make a merit of it that anything was accomplished, and takes credit that there was not utter collapse. He will not admit that with authority goes responsibility, and that it was his urgent duty to have his Department equipped. Congressional failure to supply funds was the immediate fault; but Congress necessarily depends upon estimates for adequate appropriations, and upon convincing explanations of their necessity and how they are to be expended without waste. There is no sign that any such thing was done. Even now Gen. Alger fails to appreciate the essential weakness of his administration, both structurally and through his selected agents. He has no conception of the confusion which existed, of the disaster which impended, nor that, in the absence of disobedient inferiors, he was responsible for both. In our system, the Secretary is not merely a civil administrator, and theoretically a statesman who aids the President; he assumes actual military functions, and, either directly or through the untrammelled pen of his adjutant-general, issues orders of initiative and interference, so as, when sufficiently weak through rashness and vanity, to act as a sedentary field-marshal. Under such conditions, where he does not disavow them, he must accept as his own the operations of those subordinates who are under his immediate direction. Nor can he shield himself from accountability on the plea that it is the President, and not himself, who imposes conditions; for, while he retains the portfolio of a Constitutional adviser, he must share with the President responsibility in his own department.

Six weeks before war was declared, Congress placed fifty millions for national defence at the absolute disposal of the President. Of this, the great supply department, the quartermaster's, received a one-hundredth part; the medical department, through whose hospitals and along the hands of whose officers nearly every man must pass in a war of any duration, whether defensive or offensive, one-twenty-fifth of the quartermaster's allowance; the subsistence department, nothing. Mr. Alger asserts that the President interpreted "national defence" literally, and, while he gave freely to the ordnance, the engineers, and the signal corps, he would permit the other departments to take no step outside the usual routine, nor allow them either to procure or to order material or equipment, so that, because of this prohibition, "absolutely nothing had been added to the ordinary supply as it existed March 9, 1898." The text contradicts itself, but apparently small allowances were assigned, as noted above. If this is so, if any allotment at all was made to these non-aggressive branches, it should have been in some reasonable proportion to their natural requirements. If the heads of those departments thought that $500,000 and $20,000 respectively were adequate, and prepared such estimates, they were incompetent. But if the President, of his own motion, ruled that the defence fund could be applied only to restrain assailing fleets and invading armies, and did not merely act upon the Secretary's suggestion to that effect, then the latter's acquiescence, in the absence of formal remonstrance, renders him also responsible. Both were victims of a logic whose falsity was perceived later; for, when war began, the same appropriation was freely employed for all military purposes. Could not a war minister realize that there is an offensive-defensive as well as a defensive-defensive, and act accordingly? On the other hand, if there was, as stated, no allotment at all before the declaration, and these insignificant sums were those assigned to support actual war, then incompetence becomes fatuity. Alone, this question of money is a trifle; it is only as an illustration of army control that it is important. The navy, under the same President, but with another Secretary, appears to have been unfettered as to ways and means.

When we reach the war itself, one reads with still less patience. There was no military head and no digested plan of campaign. Detached operations were discussed in numerous conferences between the President and the Secretary, at which other members of the Cabinet and Gen. Miles frequently assisted. The civilians could claim no professional knowledge, and we know what was thought of Gen. Miles, so that, wise or unwise, his views carried no weight. There was no one competent to direct, except as the Executive was the final source of power. And what happened exactly agreed with what might have been anticipated. Much of the army, followed by unequipped volunteers, was crowded over two single-track roads into Tampa because at Port Tampa, nine miles away beyond swamp and sand, reached by one line of rails, was deep water. No one who could act perceived that Atlanta, with its salubrious climate and abundant railroad facilities, was the natural base. A depot at Atlanta, with, if necessary, Huntsville, Charlotte, Augusta, Sumter, Waycross, and other less-known railway centres as auxiliaries, and Charleston, Savannah, Mobile, New Orleans, and possibly Port Tampa and Jacksonville, as sailing points, would appeal to any soldier. In the next war, unless the beaches and inlets from Wilmington south are to be garrisoned by fixed divisions, the defence of the southern coast must be made from Atlanta as the focus of a military parabola whose railroad rays touch every important littoral point.

What is true of defence is equally true of the preliminaries of offence. Nevertheless, every agent of aggression was pressed into Tampa during May. Gen. Alger now admits that "Tampa was not adapted to the concentration and the effective handling of the vast body of supplies necessary for an army of 25,000 men," and he implies that he knew at the time that Port Tampa was fit only for the dispatch of a small force. There seems no excuse for this miscalculation of capability, this demanding from a dwarf the service of a man. It resulted in waste of time and property, in unnecessary discomfort, and sometimes in hardship; and, worse, engendered distrust of a head which, having once directed streams of troops and supplies to an inappropriate site, had not sufficient decision to divert or stop them, and persisted in a recognized blunder. There was well-founded complaint that most of the volunteers were immediately concentrated in masses so enormous as to be hurtful to them as new troops, instead of being collected in preparatory camps of organization and instruction for later consolidation. Mr. Alger's reply is the assumption that a camp would be required for each of the forty-five States, which on its face is absurd; followed by the allegation that there were too few staff officers to administer such numerous centres. State camps would have been mischievous, and the policy of establishing mixed brigades, which the experience of the civil war demonstrated to be the true one, was eminently proper. But there is a vital difference between forty-five camps and ten or fifteen, and the great encampments repeated and magnified much of the confusion and inefficiency that prevailed at Tampa. The deficiency in staff officers was not real, for the Secretary had at his disposal a proficiency record of every officer's special qualification which would permit appropriate assignments without delay.

The offensive policy was fragmentary and vacillating. There was first ordered an expedition of infantry, of cavalry (it is presumed dismounted), and an excess of light artillery, to Tunas on the south coast of Cuba, and thence by sea to an undesignated point on the north coast. These were to be raids to supply the insurgents with arms and ammunition, and the orders curiously illustrate the crudeness of the directing mind as well as its estimate of the general to whom they were addressed. He was, in all simplicity, instructed to injure the Spanish forces as much as possible, but to avoid serious injury to his own command; healthful locations were to be found, and yellow-fever or other epidemics to be shunned; "and you are not expected to have your command on the island of Cuba but a few days." This expedition was abandoned before sailing, as was one to seize Mariel as a base of operations against Havana; and the Santiago transports, crowded to repletion, were held upon the Gulf a week in June—all through fear of the Spanish fleet, whose ubiquity and offensive power suddenly filled the official mind with dread, as though the naval force of Spain had sprung into life without warning or anticipation. Gen. Shafter's final orders were to proceed with a large expedition to the vicinity of Santiago, and move so as to destroy or capture the garrison, in order to cover the navy's small boats as they removed torpedoes, "or, with the aid of the navy, capture or destroy the Spanish fleet" in the harbor. The Spanish fleet was the objective; the land forces were incidental obstacles to be brushed aside. Again the instructions were those becoming a military kindergarten. Thus, the commanding general is cautioned against putting too much confidence in persons outside of his own forces; he is to take precautions against surprises, ambuscades, or positions that may have been mined or are commanded by the enemy; and he is to accomplish the object with the least possible delay. Having performed the moderate task of capturing the enemy's fleet "with the aid of the navy," he was to reëmbark for Puerto de Baños and await further orders there, unless he received other directions or should "deem it advisable to remain in the harbor of Santiago"—"this with the understanding that your command has not sustained serious loss," etc., etc. Can there be clearer evidence that Washington looked upon such warfare as a minor operation, and need we be surprised that it was staggered when climate and arms together brought disaster in July?

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One of the most serious and widely known embarrassments of that campaign, the lamentable deficiency of medical supplies ashore, was the fruit of ignorance and neglect. Rather than carry more than seven ambulances for 17,000 men, Gen. Miles's portable shields, each requiring the space on a transport that an ambulance would occupy, were taken. A machine of that bulk (weighing, it is said, a thousand pounds) for use with infantry in a tropical jungle does not commend itself to the imagination, but Gen. Alger writes: "Gen. Shafter has frankly assumed the entire responsibility." So did Burnside for Fredericksburg. But, regardless of ambulances, the ex-Secretary admits that when the transports sailed, "even hospital equipment" was insufficient, adding in palliation, that at Tampa it was thought it "could be made good . . . in a very few days." Gen. Shafter's contribution is: "I had no idea we were going to have 1,500 wounded." Perhaps he thought there would be no sickness, for those to whom the epidemic of July was "unexpected" knew no history. Without recounting the evils that followed incapacity of various kinds—for the tangle at Siboney seems to have been worse than that at Tampa, and certainly more imperatively in need of being unravelled—no one will dispute the Secretary's own verdict, applied especially to the medical property, but which some may take as a generalization, that "no excuse can be given for the carelessness in shipping these supplies, or for not putting them ashore with the army." As we understand it, this does not reflect upon the medical department itself, which appears to be entirely dependent upon others for the transportation of its property.

In a way, ambulances and shields, medical stores, a regiment more or less, a June week of crowded transports motionless on the Gulf, even the unnecessary loss of some lives, and the happening of much superfluous sickness and other hardship, are of small account in examining a great campaign. But this was not a great campaign, and these flaws are typical of its character. The real question is: Was it good military policy to operate against Santiago under the existing conditions? Should land operations, with all the available regulars, have been initiated on the verge of a season of known fatality, under a physically infirm general whose qualifications were conjectural, simply to "assist the navy" in overcoming a blockaded fleet that had no hope of succor? We think no competent strategist would commend the proposition, at least until he was assured that there was practically no opposing land force. The hostile admiral, carrying munitions for the Spanish army, had found his natural objective, Havana, inaccessible, and Cienfuegos, with its railway facilities for distribution, unavailable. He had rendered himself incapable as a military purveyor, and impotent as a breaker of blockades, by entering the harbor of Santiago, 300 miles in a right line, and many more by the country roads, from rail communication. He was bottled, and his supplies not distributable, and his destruction was probable, should he seek the sea. The navy might surely be thought competent to prevent the exit or to effect the capture of its special foe. The province of Santiago, the most distant in Cuba, would fall of necessity with the destruction of the central power, and the possession of the town should have had no appreciable influence upon the war. As it proved, Spain recognized the approach of the irresistible when San Juan Hill was occupied and the fate of Montojo's fleet overtook Cervera's. But it was the loss of the control of the sea, not the capitulation of Santiago and its outlying garrisons, that terminated the war.

Doubtless the army contributed to the flight of the fleet through the ultimate prospect of a plunging fire, but it is not a sufficient defence to assert that the result justified the method. No one may carry flame in a powder magazine in the hope that there will be no explosion. The army in possession was vanquished by the army of invasion, but the victors were absolutely defeated by the climate. Such a foreordained consequence was in plain view from the beginning. Even Gen. Alger, wise after the event, writes (p. 283): "Our army would not have been sent to one of the most unhealthful sections of Cuba at the worst season of the year, but for the fact that the Spanish admiral took refuge in Santiago Harbor." The reason is not competent, and the consequences to the invader, calamitous as they were, might easily have been fatal, or, at the least, fruitful of even greater and more persistent disaster. A very slightly prolonged resistance would have brought into fiercer action uncontrollable disease, the intelligent dread of which, already present, was depicted in the famous Round Robin. That remarkable communication, which violates nearly every principle of military propriety, does not show, as would seem at the first blush, insubordination by the soldiers (admirable as were most of them) who signed it, but their clear appreciation of the calibre and disposition of the persons in authority. It was at once a spur for action and a bridle for guidance. Imagine such a letter being addressed to Grant or Lee, to Sheridan or Jackson! Imagine their troops in a predicament from which they could only thus be extricated. The Secretary objects not to the letter, but to its publication.

To throw a little further light on the fragmentary and inconsequential nature of the War Department's actions, one may not call them plans, we note without comment the following facts: (1) The double mission of material relief to the insurgents at Tunas and on the north coast of Cuba was given up from fear of the Spanish fleet; (2) the expedition against Mariel, as a base from which to move upon Havana, was also abandoned from the same cause; (3) that fleet, blockaded by Sampson, was no longer a factor to be feared; (4) the army was diverted to Santiago to assist in the capture of the fleet; (5) after destroying the fleet, it was proposed, not to lay siege to Havana with the victorious army and the supplementary forces, but to transport it to distant Porto Rico, whose fate necessarily depended upon that of Cuba, not Cuba's upon Porto Rico's. The ravages of disease forced upon the War Department the repatriation of the Fifth Corps, which was not one of its own measures.

The farce of organizing, and proclaiming as "immune," regiments that possessed no immunity in fact or in theory, the crimination against the navy, the embalmed-beef controversy, the condition of the great camps and the reasons therefor, are among the serious subjects of which space forbids discussion. Space also debars consideration of affairs in the Philippines, regardless of any question of statesmanship as to their occupation under the treaty.

POLYPHONIC MUSIC.

The Oxford History of Music. Volume I. The Polyphonic Period. Part I. Method of Musical Art, 330-1330. By H. E. Wooldridge, M.A. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Henry Frowde. 1901.

The book of which this is the first volume is the first part of an extensive History of Music from A.D. 330 to the Romantic period, the period of Weber, Schumann, and Chopin. Professor Wooldridge has undertaken this part of the work, which the present volume carries to the period of Discant, inclusive.

In music, if we would find real continuity, we must overleap the Middle Ages, which are an intrusion and a parenthesis. They may be compared to a disease, or to a long aberration from the right path. This is so clearly illustrated in the present work, that, though it is often too technical to please readers not skilled in this particular art, it will appeal to the student of art in general, and even to the student of the philosophy of history. Professor Wooldridge divides the history of music into the three great periods of Homophony, Polyphony, and Harmony, marked respectively by the preëminence of the single melody, of combined but independent melodies, and of harmony. He traces polyphony to the octave-singing of mixed choruses of men and boys in the Greek period, and holds that it is positively proved that, while the Greeks knew other consonances besides the octave, they never used them for musical purposes. The author appears to hold the most correct views on the Greek modes and their relation to the universal scale of the ancients and to the Transposition scales of their theorists. Polyphony, then, sprang from the decadence of Greek music. At first the Church accepted the conditions transmitted from this decadent art. It took the materials of music as it found them, just as it appropriated the pagan temples and, to some extent, the pagan rites and superstitions.

After the complete triumph of the barbarian invaders, about the middle of the sixth century, there is an absolute hiatus in the history of music until about 850, when we find ecclesiastical music provided with a set of eight modes, retaining in their nomenclature clear traces of their Greek origin, but put together in a bungling manner, the source of which is found by the author in the Greek Church in Syria. This wrong view of the modes seems to have been corrected under the influence of Boethius; and it was after this reform that the development of the polyphonic principle first became possible, since now the materials of music first assumed a permanent shape. We have here one of those interferences on the part of ancient Greek music which, as Gevaert has justly observed, have occurred at every critical point in the history of this art. For Boethius was merely an interpreter, however inadequate, of Greek theories.

The author regards the advance of music from this point as due to a new emotional

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principle, the congregational emotion appropriate to collective worship. It seems to us that he is thinking back from the standpoint of later modes of thought. The idea that congregational music ought, in its very structure, to typify the "e pluribus unum," so to speak, of the congregation, does not seem to us likely to have occurred *a priori* to the musicians of the ninth century; nor is there any proof alleged that this view was taken, even *a posteriori*, by any thinker of that age. The Christian congregation had existed for eight hundred years without, apparently, feeling any need of such a mode of expression; and during that period its religious fervor had certainly not grown stronger, but much weaker, than it had been in the Catacombs. We think that a truer explanation is to be found in the waning of genuine religious feeling. Real and profound religious emotion makes but slight demands on art of any sort, while conventional religion and genuine but shallow religious feeling need the aid of elaborate art, and of that self-delusion which mistakes sensuous impressions received from without for true spiritual and inward emotion. If we are not mistaken, we must, then, include the birth of polyphony in the chapter of those timely accidents of which genius, in every age, has so readily availed itself.

However this may be, the recognition of chords, or simultaneous consonances, first appears in the ninth century, and in a form which shows great advances in the interval between our extant records. New chords, and even discords, are admitted; and there is a greater independence of the vocal parts. The part-singing of this period is called Organum, or Diaphony. The parts might be four; but two were mere repetitions of the two others; of the principal voice one octave below, and of the lower voice one octave above. The author gives numerous examples of this Organum, in one of which (on page 55) there seems to be an error in transposition, E G (three semitones) being represented by F A (four semitones). The explanation of this, not given by Professor Wooldridge, may be that the mediæval theorist was transposing by scales and not, as we do, by notes. The Scholia Enchiriadis quoted on page 53 actually profess this view.

To the strict Organum succeeded, not much later, our author thinks, the free Organum, in which the accompanying voice did not always follow the principal voice note by note. The origin of this is found in the necessity of avoiding the tritone—an interval of three whole tones (as F B), which the musicians called "Diabolus in Musica," the Devil in Music. Here we see how faults in systems lead to new discoveries. This necessity of avoiding the "Diabolus" caused a long stride to be made toward the still unsuspected goal of polyphony; that which had been resorted to as a remedy being now adopted for its own sake.

Guido d'Arezzo is now the chief exponent of musical theories; for we have reached the eleventh century. The intervals used to avoid the tritone are now studied and freely used, an advance which our author inclines to attribute to the readoption of the Greek scale. We are more inclined to see in it an effort to shake off theoretical dogmatism, a common phenomenon in the progress of all art, where Nature and Truth are ever protesting against canons of human invention. Guido yielded to this superior guidance, and the hesitancy and inconsistency of his alleged reasons are only a tribute to the authority of prevailing methods and prejudices.

Professor Wooldridge seems to undervalue the part of Guido in the advance of the musical art of the age. It is true that, after his death (about 1050), there was a reaction. The "passing" discords allowed between consonances disappear; and, in the new Organum, first expounded about 1100, there is a return to strict consonances. Variety is obtained only by the use of different modes of progression. But this led to constant efforts to write many different vocal accompaniments to one and the same melody, and the result was the creation of real third and fourth parts, no longer, as before, mere repetitions of the principal part and its Organum. Here, as the author himself admits, real progress was made by the irregular Organum of certain pieces in which all prohibitions against dissonances were disregarded. So that Guido, after all, had not wrought in vain.

The subject of Discant, or measured music, in which the consideration of rhythm (*i. e., tempo* apart from its speed) held the first place, is too technical to be discussed here; and the same may be said of the chapters on notation, in which the author has put some of his best work. The strict rhythms of this period are sometimes agreeable; but they confined composition unnecessarily and were doomed to a speedy end, like all arbitrary restraints in art, the true progress of which always lies in judiciously breaking rules. Their monotony led to violations, or to clever evasions, of the rules; and these soon became the usual practice. The free use of consonances led to new views as to the movement of the voices; and, at a time roughly estimated as between 1290 and 1300, we see Discant coming very near to plain Counterpoint. The elements of composition were still Tenor and Discant, but the Discant was no longer metrically enslaved to the "subject." Consonances were required in the strong beat of the measure only. "Composition at this time [with which this volume closes] was weak and tentative, deficient in resource, hampered by its conditions—the effect harsh, empty, and harmonically pointless." The prevailing forms of composition were the two kinds of Organum, the Cantilena, the Rondel, the Motett, the Hoquet, and the Conductus; the last two being to us mere names.

The Rondel will interest every reader who knows or enjoys music. The most famous example, the English rondel "Sumer is icumen in" (date about 1240), given here in several versions, is a composition of which any age or any people might be proud. The nameless author may be classed with the many great men who are personally unknown to us *quia vate carent*. The volume ends with many examples of rondels and motetts, covering some seventy pages.

Of Professor Wooldridge's work we cannot speak too highly. It is difficult to overstate the enormous labor and difficulty involved in unravelling the tangled mass of facts with which he had to deal; and the result is more satisfactory than could have been expected even from such diligence and so much ability. The "make-up" of the book is what we have learned to expect from the Clarendon Press. We have noted very few misprints, and those of no great consequence, as "Sancta Spiritus" on p. 378. One curious mistake seems, however, to have been made in the account given of the manuscript in the Laurentian Library, at Florence, from which so much of the author's material is drawn that, without it, this book could not have been written. We are told that the MS. is marked "Plutarch 29. 1." Now, a dialogue on Music is indeed found among the works of Plutarch; but this MS. does not contain a line of it. On the other hand, the MSS. in the original Laurentiana are all marked "Plut.," with two numerals following; the letters "Plut." standing for some form of the word *pluteus*, which merely means a book-case.

Studies of Trees in Winter: A Description of Deciduous Trees of Northeastern America. By Annie Oakes Huntington. With an introduction by Charles Sprague Sargent, LL.D., Director of the Arnold Arboretum and Author of 'The Silva of North America.' Illustrated with colored plates and photographs. Boston: Knight & Millet. 1902.

A Handbook of the Trees of New England. By Lorin L. Dame and Henry Brooks. Boston: Ginn & Co. 1902.

Those of our readers to whom it was permitted to make use of the excellent 'Arboretum et Fruticetum Britannicum' of Loudon can never forget the pleasure given by the winter days when, through the windows, the leafless branches of the trees, still or swaying, served as fascinating objects of comparison with the sketches in the book. The eight volumes of Loudon were not convenient handbooks for field use, and therefore gave one an additional excuse for staying by the open fire, indoors. The 'Studies of Trees in Winter,' brought within convenient compass of a manual, must take away this excuse for fireside examination of our beautiful winter vegetation. One can now enjoy the study of our oaks and maples and ashes in the crisp bracing air of the lengthening days. It is possible for even the least observant person to familiarize himself with the more common of our trees in winter, and watch the coming of the miracle of spring.

It is well known to all thoughtful persons that the buds of our trees and shrubs represent the most admirable adaptation to surroundings. In the equatorial belt, where plants have the weather quite their own way, and where, year in and year out, they take no thought for hard times coming, buds, in our Northern sense of the word, have scarcely any existence. Our buds stand as examples of survival, through countless generations, of the hardy stocks which could meet sudden emergencies in the most variable climates. Alfred Russel Wallace and Grant Allen have found in buds illustrations of deep interest touching the great subjects of variation and survival which they have had most at heart. An attentive examination of the myriad forms of buds, identifiable by means of this admirable work, will add much to the interest of the winter walks until the coming of the spring. And then can be substituted for this study the use of the handy book on 'The Trees of New England' by Dr. Dame and Mr. Brooks. These authors have covered the ground in an attractive and successful manner. Their descriptions are truthful

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and interesting, their plates are excellent, and, in short, they have produced a convenient and safe guide. We congratulate the lovers of trees in our Northern States upon the admirable textbooks which are now within very easy reach.

There are many encouraging signs of a deepening interest in our trees as trees, and in forests as a precious heritage. Every good handbook which serves to increase this interest must be heartily welcomed.

A Dictionary of Architecture and Building: Biographical, Historical, and Descriptive. By Russell Sturgis and Many Architects, Painters, Engineers, and Other Expert Writers, American and Foreign. In three volumes. Vol. III., O-Z. The Macmillan Co. 1902.

The appearance of this third volume marks the completion of a work which will doubtless for many years remain the standard encyclopædic dictionary of the subject. Upon the appearance of the first volume, we described in these columns the form and scope of the undertaking. We will now confine ourselves to some account of the contents of the third volume. The Dictionary, as a whole, is marked by the fortunate selection of its writers, and the appropriateness of these selections is no less evident in the third than it was in the preceding volumes. To take a single case: the whole subject of the use of colored glass in windows has been committed to the care of Mr. John La Farge, who has approached the matter not merely as an historian (for as such he treats it with all necessary fulness), but as an artist familiar with the technique of the material and the limitations and possibilities of the art of the window-maker. The part of his article devoted to the colored window in America is particularly interesting, since Mr. La Farge was among the foremost in developing that art. He therefore speaks from an intimate knowledge of the aims of the early workers and the difficulties they had to overcome.

Among the articles in the present volume upon the history of Architecture, the most notable are those of Mr. R. Phené Spiers upon Roman Imperial Architecture and upon the architecture of certain Eastern countries; of Mr. C. H. Blackall on Spain and Portugal, of Prof. A. D. F. Hamlin on Scotland, and of Professor Frothingham on Sicily. The latter writer also contributes an article on Pelasgic architecture, which he defines as a style of building prevailing in the pre-Hellenic world, in addition to two styles of early date, found one in the valley of the Nile, the other in the valley of the Euphrates. Probably the longest single article in the present volume is that upon Architecture in the United States, being Mr. Montgomery Schuyler's exhaustive treatment of the subject from pre-Columbian times to the present day. Nor should we fail to mention Mr. W. P. P. Longfellow's article on Romanesque Architecture, or his still more interesting treatment of the subject of Round churches. Among articles dealing with parts of buildings are especially to be noted two by Professor Babcock, one on Pendentive, the other on Vault, both particularly to be commended by reason of the exhaustive series of diagrams with which they are illustrated. These diagrams, although they would have been equally useful had they been given at a much smaller scale (a statement true of nine-tenths of the illustrations in the Dictionary), form with their succinct text so valuable a presentation of their subjects that one regrets that the same method has not been employed more generally throughout the work.

Upon Æsthetics the chief article contained in the present volume is that of Mr. Henry Rutgers Marshall on "Truth in Architecture," a discussion of the expression, in design, of the essential facts of the plan and structure. The most important article on building materials is that by Prof. George P. Merrill on Stone, an inquiry into the nature, use, and source of the stones most frequently employed in construction, with special reference to those occurring in the United States.

It need only be added that the great mass of definitions and of brief articles contributed by the Editor is up to the standard of the earlier volumes, and that the biographies of architects are as complete as heretofore, to show that the work has been carried to a conclusion in precisely as satisfactory a manner as the first volume justified us in anticipating.

Letters on Life. By Claudius Clear (Dr. W. Robertson Nicoll). Dodd, Mead & Co. 1901.

Only a hardened critic could refrain from laying aside his scalpel when an author, in his first chapter, makes a clean breast of his own ideals by declaring that "the highest wisdom is to be found in commonplaces." Dr. Nicoll has here suggested the obvious comment on such statements as that there cannot be good conversation between two people unless they are united by a feeling of sympathy; that many persons have their heads turned by sudden success; that the first condition of learning is humility; that it is perhaps wise now and then to have a pause if one is engaged in work which strains one's faculties; that what is work to one man is play to another; that it often happens that one who writes brilliantly does not talk in the same way; that men who are charming in society may be boors at home, etc., etc. Yet, in spite of its likeness in this respect to the immortal masterpiece of Martin F. Tupper, this volume is not only readable but even stimulating. Its commonplaces are presented as "confirmed and illuminated by experience." Dr. Nicoll's illustrations are drawn from a wide range, from Rousseau to Mrs. Oliphant, and some of the best are incidents related as having happened to friends of his own. The author shows his belief in his proposition "that literature is autobiography" by adding that personal element which is essential to good essays. His confessions respecting his visit to a palmist, his weariness of the sunshine of the Riviera, and his inability to make notes of what he reads, were well worth putting on record for the encouragement of weaker brethren.

The leading characteristic of the book is a homely and kindly good sense, expressed in a clear and unpretentious style and relieved by a pawky Scotch humor. With all its platitudes, not a few shrewd hints are scattered here and there; as, for instance, that many people would be much better talkers if they could even slightly enlarge their vocabulary, and that the holiday that does us most good is not the one we enjoy most, but the dull holiday. Dr. Nicoll is to be congratulated also on his skill in the choice of topics. Such titles as "On the Art of Taking Things Coolly," "The Sin of Overwork," "How to Remember and How to Forget," and "Should Old Letters be Kept?" whet the reader's appetite immediately, and it is not disappointed by the manner in which these subjects are treated. The lessons of "the American invasion" are expounded in three papers, one of which is based on Elbert Hubbard's 'Message to Garcia,' though Mr. Hubbard will probably regret to learn that the name of the author of that famous pamphlet is not given. The points in our own business policy which Dr. Nicoll especially approves are that American employers fire out the fools, pay good men well, and take good men into their confidence. Elsewhere Dr. Nicoll expresses the opinion that "America is not nearly enthusiastic enough about her choicest spirits," and alleges in evidence the neglect at Litchfield of the Beecher traditions of the place. We learn with much pleasure that the author's domestic cat, which can endure listening to most of the minor poets, could not stand some of the Laureate's "laborious trash" about the union between England and America, but deliberately left the room after hearing two stanzas.

The Labyrinth of the World and the Paradise of the Heart. By John Amos Komensky (Comenius). Edited and translated by Count Lützow. E. P. Dutton & Co. 1901.

Comenius is famous as an educational reformer; his memory has been piously cherished by the Moravians, and something of his travels and trials is generally known. But what his compatriots regard as his most important book—more valuable than the 'Janua Linguarum,' which was long used in schools, or the 'Orbispectus,' or his later "pansophic" works—has been little known except to Bohemians. 'The Labyrinth of the World' was written in 1623, and first printed in 1631, "probably either at Lissa or at Pirna in Saxony." An enlarged edition appeared at Amsterdam in 1663, and was reprinted at Berlin in 1757, and at Prague, 1782 and 1809; this last edition was suppressed in 1820. Within the last half century there have been many editions, always in Bohemian. German translations, abridged or adapted, appeared in 1781, 1787, and about 1872. Others exist in Hungarian and Russian. Count Lützow, of the Bohemian Academy, now publishes a careful English version. His apologies, as writing in a language not his own, are unnecessary, for his work is well done, and discloses to "the largest public of readers in the world" what is at the least a literary curiosity, and (as he assures us) a beloved national classic. Parts of it are now read in the Bohemian schools for the style; and the song of the Bohemian exiles celebrates it with their vernacular Scriptures: "Nothing have we taken with us, everything is lost; we have but our Bible of Kralice and our 'Labyrinth of the World.'"

The 'Labyrinth' is a satirical allegory, introducing a shorter devotional work. The author, in his dedication to his patron, the Baron of Zerotin, says, "The first part depicts the follies and insanity of the world, showing how, mainly and with great labor,

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it busies itself with worthless things, and how all these things at last end wretchedly, either in laughter or in tears. The second part describes, partly as through a veil, partly openly, the true and firm felicity of the sons of God." The main part somewhat resembles 'Pilgrim's Progress,' and still more the 'Table of Cebes,' which the writer may have known. It is deeply pessimistic, the work of a scholar who had recently seen his religion crushed, his house and library burned, himself, his family and friends driven forth. The translator claims that it offers "an almost perfect picture of the life and thought of Bohemia and Germany . . . in the early years of the seventeenth century." It bears the marks of a strong and even fair mind; it is curiously free from bigotry and "doctrines"; it represents Christendom as a great church with "many little chapels, to which those went who had not been able to agree." The book is one of the few allegories which tend to more than mere edification. The introduction includes a sketch of Komensky's life by which the usual notices of him may be corrected.

The Laws of Scientific Hand-Reading: A Practical Treatise on the Art commonly called Palmistry. By William G. Benham. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1901. Large 8vo, pp. 635, with 800 illustrations from life.

Either as a manual of instruction for the learner or as a book of reference for the more expert, palmists are indebted to Dr. Benham for one of the most desirable works on their subject. Illustrations and text are good, abundant, and handsomely published. The treatment appears to be original, and is largely the outcome of an unusually varied experience by a practising physician. The discussions are modern; the earlier literature is advantageously neglected. Continued study of the diseased and abnormal may have too much influence on conclusions, yet the knowledge thus gained is of great importance to one whose business it is to weigh small departures from normal conditions. The word scientific in the title is not to be taken as indicating that the art has become a branch of science; that is not possible while so much reliance is placed on mystification and the tricks of the trade. What science there is in palmistry would be better received if not discredited by deception and trickery. In the main the facts are not secured from the hand. The organ may tell whether its owner is a laborer or an idler; its neatness or want of it may decide whether he is an affluent or a lazy idler, and so on; nails, hairs, color, hardness, and the like may tell something, yet general carriage, manners, appearance, shapes, clothes, speech, attitudes, and other features all are made to contribute to a story that in pretence is read off the hand.

There is here good display of the sources of information and of methods of securing and of using it. The instructions for interpreting the lines, mounts, and other points of the palm are very complete, without increasing our respect. It needs little more than the injunctions to the learner to set the so-called art in its true light. One is told to adapt the line to the subject, not the subject to the line; the latter is said to be accurate only when the subject is first understood, and the line applied to him—the interpretation of the line must depend entirely on the kind of subject on which it is seen; laziness or bile may destroy any amount of genuine ability. In a way this may be scientific; it is different with such formulas as—faint lines just beginning to form show emotions just starting to develop; or, the presence of the line of Apollo makes success easier; or, where the hair has been made white by shock you will find a broken or islanded head line; or, in the head-line it has been found that the inner workings of the mind are disclosed, etc., etc. A really scientific palmistry would be less attractive to gypsies and other fortune-tellers, and to their dupes, and would drop the gabble about Jupiter, Saturn, Apollo, Mars, Mercury, Venus, and the moon; but how much more honest it would be!

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Benjamin, C. T. Selections from Irving's Sketch-Book. (Regents' Edition.) American Book Co. 50 cents.
Blackmar, F. W. The Life of Charles Robinson, the First State Governor of Kansas. Topeka: Crane & Co.
Bradley, A. G. The Fight with France for North America. London: Archibald Constable & Co.; New York: E. P. Dutton & Co. $3.
Brown, W. B. The Gospel of the Kingdom and the Gospel of the Church. Thomas Whittaker. $1.
Brunton, Lauder. On Disorders of Assimilation, Digestion, etc. Macmillan. $4.
Cenni Storici sulle Imprese Scientifiche Marittime e Coloniali di Ferdinando I., Grandduca di Toscana. Firenze: G. Spinelli & Cl.
Cobb, W. F. Theology Old and New. (The Church's Outlook.) London: Elliot Stock; New York: E. P. Dutton & Co. $1.
Cockerell, Douglas. Bookbinding, and the Care of Books. D. Appleton & Co. $1.20.
Colburn, Bertha L. Graded Physical Exercises. Edgar S. Werner Pub. and Supply Co. $1.
Connold, E. T. British Vegetable Galls. E. P. Dutton & Co. $4.
Cooper, E. H. A Fool's Year. D. Appleton & Co. $1.
Coubertin, Pierre de. La Chronique de France. Paris: La Chronique de France.
De Forest, J. W. Poems: Medley and Palestina. New Haven: The Tuttle, Morehouse & Taylor Co. $1.25.
Dewey, John. (1) Psychology and Social Practice; (2) The Educational Situation. Chicago: The University of Chicago Press.
Eggleston, G. C. The American Immortals. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $10.
Folks, Homer. The Care of Destitute, Neglected, and Delinquent Children. Macmillan. $1.
Frazer, Mrs. J. G. Asinette: A French Story for English Children. London: J. M. Dent & Co.; New York: E. P. Dutton & Co. $1.25.
French, Allen. The Colonials. Doubleday, Page & Co. $1.50.
Gautier, Théophile. Works. Vols. XIII. and XIV.: Travels in Russia. George D. Sproul.
Gilbert, G. H. A Primer of the Christian Religion. Macmillan. $1.
Hall, H. F. Napoleon's Letters to Josephine: 1796-1812. London: J. M. Dent & Co.; New York: E. P. Dutton & Co. $3.
Hanna, C. A. The Scotch-Irish. 2 vols. G. P. Putnam's Sons.
Hensman, Howard. Cecil Rhodes: A Study of a Career. Harpers. $5.
Hinchman, Lydia S. Early Settlers of Nantucket. Philadelphia: Ferris & Leach. $5.
Hobhouse, L. T. Mind in Evolution. Macmillan. $3.25.
Hope, A. R. Tales for Toby. London: J. M. Dent & Co.; New York: E. P. Dutton & Co. $1.50.
Hughes, Eillan. My Island. London: J. M. Dent & Co.; New York: E. P. Dutton & Co. $1.25.
Hutchison, Ida W. The Gospel Story of Jesus Christ. London: J. M. Dent & Co.; New York: E. P. Dutton & Co. $1.50.
Keller, A. G. Homeric Society. Longmans, Green & Co. $1.20.
Langlois, Ch.-V. L'Inquisition d'après des Travaux Récents. Paris: Société Nouvelle de Librairie et d'Edition. 1 fr.
Lanier, J. J. Kinship of God and Man. Thomas Whittaker. $1.
Lee, F. B. New Jersey as a Colony and as a State. 4 vols. The Pub. Society of New Jersey.
Le Gallienne, Richard. Rubáiyát of Omar Khayyám. New ed. John Lane. $1.50.
Levy, J. H. The Necessity for Criminal Appeal as Illustrated by the Maybrick Case and the Jurisprudence of Various Countries. London: P. S. King & Son; New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons. $4.20.
Lewis, E. H. A Text-Book of Applied English Grammar. Macmillan. 35 cents.
Life and Works of the Redeemer. London: Cassell & Co.; New York: E. P. Dutton & Co. $2.
Linnet, Brown. Widow Wiley, and Some Other Old Folk. E. P. Dutton & Co. $1.50.
Lobse, J. Thoughts from the Letters of Petrarch. London: J. M. Dent & Co.; New York: E. P. Dutton & Co. $1.
McCarthy, J. H. If I Were King. R. H. Russell. $1.50.
McLellan, J. A., and Ames, A. F. The Public School Arithmetic for Grammar Grades. Macmillan. 60 cents.
Mortimer, A. G. Lenten Preaching: Three Courses of Sermons for Lent. London: Skeffington & Son; New York: E. P. Dutton & Co. $1.25.
Oppenheim, Nathan. Mental Growth and Control. Macmillan. $1.
Schurman, J. G. Philippine Affairs. Scribners. 60 cents.
Sledd, Benjamin. The Watchers of the Hearth. Boston: The Gorham Press. $1.25.
Stebbins, Genevieve. Delsarte System of Expression. New ed. Edgar S. Werner Pub. and Supply Co. $2.
Stern, Menco. Geschichten von deutschen Städten. American Book Co. $1.25.
Stevenson, R. L. A Child's Garden of Verses. New ed. Scribners. 60 cents.
Story, A. T. Swiss Life in Town and Country. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1.35.
Symons, Arthur. Poems. 2 vols. John Lane.
Ten Brink, Bernhard. The Language and Metre of Chaucer. New ed. Macmillan. $1.50
Thackeray, W. M. Pendennis. 3 vols. (The Prose Works of William Makepeace Thackeray.) London: J. M. Dent & Co.; New York: E. P. Dutton & Co.
Wilgus, H. L. A Study of the United States Steel Corporation from its Industrial and Legal Aspects. Chicago: Callaghan & Co.
Willoughby, E. F. Hygiene for Students. Macmillan. $1.25.
Woodbury, Ellen C. D. Q. Dorothy Quincy, Wife of John Hancock. Washington: The Neale Pub. Co. $1.50.
Young, Ella F. Isolation in the School. Chicago: The University of Chicago Press.

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Assurance Fund and all other liabilities . .	259,910,678.28
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